

MANUAL OF LIBRARY ECONOMY



JAMES DUFF BROWN

MANUAL OF LIBRARY ECONOMY

BY

JAMES DUFF BROWN

AUTHOR OF

SUBJECT CLASSIFICATION,' 'LIBRARY CLASSIFICATION AND CATALOGUING,'
'A BIOGRAPHICAL DICTIONARY OF MUSICIANS,' ETC.

FIFTH EDITION

BY

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'A MANUAL OF CLASSIFICATION,' 'AN INTRODUCTION TO CLASSIFICATION,'
'SAMUEL COLERIDGE-TAYLOR, MUSICIAN,' ETC.

WITH NEW ILLUSTRATIONS, FORMS
AND BIBLIOGRAPHIES

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DEDICATED TO THE MEMORY
OF
JAMES DUFF BROWN
1862-1914

He lived and died, content to view
His labours making knowledge free ;
He opened every book he knew
For other men to see.

PREFACE

A COMPARISON of this and previous editions is instructive as showing the development of ideas in library practice. When, in 1903, James Duff Brown put forth his *MANUAL OF LIBRARY ECONOMY* it was hailed by eager library workers everywhere as the first comprehensive treatise on its subject, with the possible exception of Arnim Graesel's *Grundzüge der Bibliothekslehre* which had appeared at Leipzig thirteen years before and was also available in a French translation, by Jules Laude, as the *Manuel de Bibliothéconomie*, published in Paris in 1897. Even America had no comparable work. Brown was familiar with that admirable book, and the order of his own work bears some resemblance to it, but Graesel was mainly concerned with university and national libraries, and Brown desired to concentrate into one volume what was found to be the most useful methodology of the public library as we Anglo-Saxon peoples know it; British conditions guided and influenced him. Much of his work was conditioned by the grave financial limitations imposed upon rate-supported libraries. The successive editions of the work show the very gradual enlargement that the British attitude of mind towards libraries has undergone; but, be it remarked, most of the modern developments were foreseen and even advocated by Brown. Hardly a page of Brown's now remains in this Fifth Edition, but the book was his and his name will always be associated with it.

A criticism which I am not concerned to challenge is that the modern tendency is so much towards specialization that no single volume can compass all librarianship. Of course it cannot in detail, but one may submit that it is possible to give a practical general account which shall be the groundwork of the special study that must follow if the student is to become a university, or commercial, or reference, or children's, or any other kind of librarian; he will, in any case, be none the worse for the knowledge contained here. No more than that is claimed or attempted, and the continuous demand for the book shows that its not immodest claims to fill a necessary place are recognized, and, in fact, nearly all subsequent text-books have owed much to it.

It is based, as I have said, upon British needs, and its theories and instructions are those to which the normal public library conforms. Some have discovered an objection to the title it has borne for over thirty years on the ground that it is not a manual of *all* library economy. This is asking too much; while it can readily be allowed that state, university and special libraries have problems of their own, modern library methodology is in the main the outcome of the experiments of the librarians of municipal libraries. Moreover, there has crept into print lately much emphasis of the alleged fact that librarianship begins where library technique ends, a misleading and foolish allegation, which really implies that scholarship and good library methods are incompatible. The distinction between the educated lover of books and the librarian is that the latter possesses the trained ability to collect and to marshal masses of books so that readers may have the fullest use of them. A librarian is primarily a librarian, and that means a man trained in methods that may apply to any library; specialization is necessary, of course, but it ought to follow general training. The name of the **MANUAL OF LIBRARY ECONOMY** is fully justified.

This edition has been subjected to a rigorous revision. The chapter on a National Library Service is new, and nearly every other chapter has been modified or extended in some way, in order to bring out the many changes that have occurred in the Library Association and its syllabus; in the status of the librarian; the development of opinion on the planning, decoration and furnishing of library buildings; the new services to readers, to schools and to hospitals; the expansion of county service; the improvement in the printing matter issued by libraries, and much more that in so short a time has been, as it is hoped, improved. The significant feature of this quinquennium has been the development of regional and other systems of inter-working amongst libraries. This has been based upon a good will of which I, as a librarian, am very proud. I do not pretend that my work is complete or that it is without many faults, and like John Bunyan I ask my readers to help me to correct it in any fault or all.

In spite of minor differences, sometimes expressed tellingly, there is no profession in which kindness and mutual help flourish more than in librarianship, and again I have been conscious of this when soliciting help on this work. From its early days, of course, for the Editor a life-long debt remains

to the "onlie begetter of this work," James Duff Brown, and to those who were his coadjutors, critics and aids, L. Stanley Jast, who is always devising something, Arthur W. Lambert, the designer of many library appliances, and William Fortune, the trained librarian who became the business man of the library equipment world. This group more than any other made much of modern library economy possible. To these acknowledgment is necessary ; as also to James D. Stewart, for somewhat later work, which appears in many places ; and particularly, in these days of degenerate scripts, would I call attention to his handwriting in Figs. 105 and 126-129, which has not been surpassed for library use. For the present edition I have received notes and suggestions of much value from Mr. F. Seymour Smith ; Mr. Fred M. Gardner has advised on printing ; the binding examples were those done for the last edition by Mr. Fred Barlow ; and the appendix, original compiled in 1919 by Captain Richard Wright and revised in 1930 by Miss Beatrice E. Homewood, has now been re-arranged and amplified by Mr. L. Montague Harrod. I have also had useful suggestions from Messrs. George R. Bolton, T. E. Callander, R. J. Gordon, J. P. Lamb, Charles Nowell, Henry A. Sharp, and E. Sydney. Some of these have lent me blocks, photographs and forms, but I feel that special mention must be given to the splendid series which come from Sheffield (Mr. J. P. Lamb), Glasgow (Mr. S. Pitt), Leeds (Mr. R. J. Gordon), and Bristol (Mr. James Ross). One or more blocks have been lent by the *The Architect and Building News* (Mr. H. S. Scott), the National Central Library (Colonel Luxmoore Newcombe), Battersea (Mr. J. F. Hogg), Bethnal Green (Mr. George Vale), Derbyshire County (Mr. Edgar Osborne), Kent County (Miss A. S. Cooke), The Library Association (Mr. P. S. J. Welsford), Liverpool (Mr. J. F. Smith), and many from Libraco. I owe much in various ways to Miss A. J. Culverwell.

If I have inadvertently omitted to name any others who have assisted will they forgive me and accept a general word of thanks ?

This book will be read by men and women who are entering upon a library career. With a long experience I say that career is a good one for the lover of books and men, and for no others. It is often difficult to find desirable posts and for much hard work it offers no great financial reward. But those of us who are librarians have rarely envied other men their work. To the right person a library is a place of continual surprise,

adventure, growth. One learns there every day more and more the shortness of one's own reach and the illimitability of the things one would grasp. No real librarian was ever proud of his scholarship, learning or wisdom; working with the entire inheritance of these things he is for ever aware of his own limits. Yet in the epitaph which Austin Dobson wrote on Richard Garnett there is a beautiful summing-up of the qualities of the perfect librarian which may be our ideal:

Of him we may say justly—Here was one
Who knew of most things more than any other;
Who loved all learning underneath the sun
And looked on every learner as a brother.

W. C. BERWICK SAYERS.

CROYDON.

July, 1936.

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DIVISION I

INTRODUCTION, LEGISLATION, COMMITTEES, FINANCE

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

LIBRARIANSHIP IN GREAT BRITAIN. THE PRESENT SCOPE OF THE
LIBRARY PROFESSION. METHODS OF THIS BOOK

1. LIBRARY economy is a term covering every branch of work concerned with libraries; and libraries may be defined in a phrase as institutions devoted to the collecting, conserving and exploiting of literature. To the greater libraries such as that of the British Museum, the Library of Congress, the Bibliothèque Nationale, the older University Libraries, such libraries as the John Rylands Library at Manchester, and a few of the greater municipal libraries, is reserved the onerous task of collecting and preserving literature in general, and of making it accessible to scholars and other readers. These libraries do indeed serve supremely also as intellectual and literary workshops. The ordinary general library, however, of which the public library in the town and the county library in the rural districts are the types, is mainly for daily use by ordinary students and readers. It is not concerned with the permanent preservation of books, except of those which have *local* value, and except in so far as preservation is necessary in order to get the maximum current service from them. Much of the technical equipment of the modern librarian has come into being as a result of progress from the original "museum" to the present "workshop" character.

2. Our subject, then, covers the founding, organizing, administration and routine of libraries. In this study the rate supported library will of necessity bulk largely. This library (which uneducated people call the "free library") has gradually and generally appropriated the name "public library," which

in former times belonged only to State and university libraries. The use of the term has become so common that attempts to call it "borough," "urban," or "municipal" are useless. To-day it is a many-sided, active civic institution, making its appeal to all classes of the community as a centre of education, information and recreation, with a trained service to direct it. Nearly every other type of library also is most concerned with the best means of attracting people to make use of literature, and is an active rather than a passive force. There is, therefore, a "library economy" of sorts for each of the types, and there certainly is a technique of special application to the collection, preparation and issue of books in municipal libraries; but so far as general methods, such as classification, cataloguing, shelving, reading desks, lighting and many other matters are concerned the needs of all libraries are very much the same. At least their differences are of degree rather than of kind. For this reason this book retains its title of *MANUAL OF LIBRARY ECONOMY*.

3. The history of the libraries of kings, colleges and monasteries has been told with scholarship and charm in such books as J. W. Clark's *The Care of Books*, E. A. Savage's *Old English Libraries*, B. H. Streeter's *The Chained Library*, and the older forerunner of such histories, Edward Edwards's *Memoirs of Libraries*. That history covers the development of human knowledge and the preservation of its records, and attractive as is the study it would be impossible to do more than indicate it here. Libraries have been recognized as important in all ages, and a brief study of the early civilizations of the East and of the Mediterranean countries, as well as all later periods, shows the existence of state, public, ecclesiastical and monastic libraries for which there was some sort of librarianship, with even such seemingly modern appliances as classification and cataloguing of a kind. The library as we know it to-day, and librarianship in particular, may almost be said to be the creation of the second half of the nineteenth century. Earlier town libraries indeed existed, the first, it is believed, being that at Norwich, which was opened to the public in 1608; but although there were individual instances, the municipal public library (commonly but erroneously called the "free library" because no charge is made for its use) was a result of the Libraries Act of 1850 promoted by William Ewart, M.P., who had at his back the real pioneer of public libraries, Edward Edwards, whose *Memoir of Libraries* is the most monumental

of treatises on library history and administration. The Act of 1850 had in view the needs of the poor, sanctioned the levying of a halfpenny rate, and, with curious want of vision, allowed no money for book-purchase, leaving such provision to the generosity of private donors. The debates upon the Bill before it became law are curious and entertaining reading; and it appears that the special purpose of libraries was the prevention of crime! Progress was slow at first, but in 1853 it was stated that thirteen towns had adopted the Act. In 1855 its provisions were extended to Ireland, and in this amending bill the amount that might be levied for libraries throughout the kingdom was increased to a limit of one penny in the pound.

4. We need not follow the history of the movement in detail, as a useful book, *A History of the Public Library Movement in Great Britain and Ireland*, by John Minto, is available on the question; nor need we go into the parallel and in some respects more wonderful development of the movement in America. Libraries have grown up in almost every town of any size in the British Isles; but for nearly seventy years the whole movement was retarded, even crippled, by the retention in the Acts of a clause limiting expenditure on libraries to the produce of a one-penny rate, and all criticisms of the library service made during these years must be related to that fact. The increase in assessment values made some progress possible, and in the largest cities the limit was raised by special local acts. Most libraries, however, were faced with demands which grew with the rise of a school-attending working-class without reasonable means of meeting them. Private generosity did much to forward the movement. Amongst many who have provided towns with public library buildings, Passmore Edwards, Lord Brassey, Henry Tate, Colonel Gamble and Professor Sandeman may be mentioned; but the greatest impetus to the movement was given by the systematic and almost universal munificence of Andrew Carnegie, which began in 1886 and has been continued by him and by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, which he has endowed. His system was to give a suitable building, on the condition that the authority accepting it adopted the Libraries Act and provided a site from other money than the library rate. By this means scores of towns which were without or had only inferior library buildings now possess one in some way worthy of the name. The development of public libraries and library practice under the confined financial conditions, in many towns those of almost

complete penury, is one of the significant social and educational phenomena of the nineteenth and first thirty years of the twentieth centuries, although nearly all social historians—while using these libraries in gathering their data—have been without the perspicacity to notice it.

5. The expansion of libraries gave rise to the modern profession of librarianship and to the distinctive professional title “librarian” as meaning a member of it. The older libraries were usually in the charge of scholars, whose main work was that of “keeper” of the books, a title which the librarians in charge of the British Museum still bear, although it does not now comprehend their work.¹ The municipal library required a man who was not primarily a scholar, although scholarship was an invaluable basis for his work; he was rather required to be an administrator, a purveyor of books, and, because of the very limited moneys at his disposal, something of a business man. For some years, however, there was no definite science or art of librarianship in this sense. Edward Edwards, in the second volume of his *Memoirs of Libraries*, laid firmly the foundations of present library economy in a résumé and exposition of the multifarious methods of cataloguing, classification, library planning and administration used in the various libraries of the world. Little followed in England until the growing needs of the work caused a few far-seeing librarians to find some means of bringing librarians together. This they succeeded in doing in the successive conferences of librarians, British and international, the first of which was held in London in 1877. Out of these sprang the Library Association in 1878, with Henry R. Tedder and E. B. Nicholson as its first honorary secretaries, and Robert Harrison as honorary treasurer. In the first year E. C. Thomas succeeded Nicholson, and somewhat later he was associated in his office with J. Y. W. MacAlister,² one of the most significant and creative personalities in our work; while Tedder assumed the office of treasurer, which he held with wisdom and unsparing industry until his death in 1924. The Association was incorporated by Royal Charter in 1898. By means of frequent gatherings, especially by its annual meetings, the Library Association gradually brought together the whole body of librarians in this country, who read and discussed professional papers, published proceedings, initiated scheme after scheme for the promotion and improvement of

¹ The head of the whole British Museum is the Director and Principal Librarian.

² Knighted in 1919.

libraries, and generally became the controlling factor in library polity. In recent years it has affiliated nearly all the library

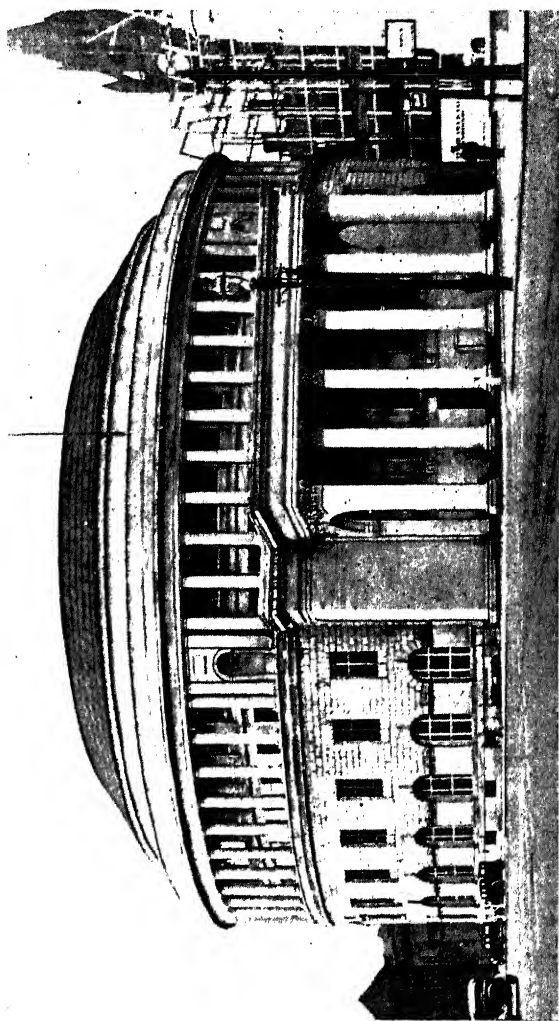


Fig. 1.—The Central Library, Manchester.
[Copyright, the Manchester Public Libraries.]

societies in Great Britain, the only independent societies now being the Bibliographical Society and the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux. In 1933, with the aid of the Carnegie Trustees, it became the owner in Chaucer

House, Malet Place, London, W.C.1, of dignified, convenient headquarters adjacent to University College and in the centre of the new University of London area. This forms the rallying place to-day for all British librarianship. For many years it was recognized that training in technical methods was necessary for librarians, and the Association has devoted much attention to this work. At first it held summer schools and, from 1898, other brief courses for library students, and examined the students upon them. Later it established, in connexion with the Governors of the London School of Economics, regular courses of lectures at that institution. A carefully-designed and remarkably helpful syllabus of instruction was drawn up, and on this examinations were held and certificates leading up to a diploma in librarianship were issued. Whole-time training of university rank was long advocated by the Library Association, and, at its instigation and with the financial aid of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, the University of London School of Librarianship began work at University College, London, with Dr. Ernest A. Baker as its first director, and with a staff of lecturers drawn from different types of library. The School curriculum is based on the syllabus of the Library Association, and for students of matriculation standard provides a two-years' course; holders of a good degree from approved universities may complete the course in one year; and there are courses by which part-time students who are already in employment in libraries may complete their diploma in five years. The School has its own diploma, issued by the University, which is granted after the student has passed his examinations and, in addition, has given paid service for one year in an approved library. It also prepares students for the Library Association examinations. At Dublin there is a library school, in connexion with University College there, which examines and issues a diploma. Similar schools have been advocated at Manchester for the north of England and at Glasgow for Scotland. In the meantime there are lectures at Manchester in connexion with the Education Authority. At various times the London School has held short Easter vacation schools in librarianship. Until 1928 the University of Aberystwyth (in connexion with the National Library of Wales), held short summer schools, and since then similar schools have been held at Birmingham. The Scottish Library Association has also held similar schools.

6. There have been various definitions of the purpose of

public libraries and librarians, few of them entirely adequate. We shall not attempt another dogmatically, but we may suggest that that purpose is to provide a representative and systematically arranged collection of literature from the daily newspaper to the elaborate treatise and encyclopædic work of reference. The methods of doing this, and of exploiting in the public interest the collection when made, are the subject-matter of this manual. Until this primary purpose of a library is fulfilled any attempts at those added activities which are advocated by some librarians to-day are likely to be mistaken, or at least ill-advised. The Library Association has not issued a comprehensive manifesto covering this matter, and might very well do so, if care were taken, as no doubt it would be, to give considerable elasticity to the definitions. At the Annual Meeting in 1917, however, it did adopt the following series of resolutions of great importance, which, as the almost unanimous pronouncement of the profession, must find a place here.

(1) "That the aim of the library as an educational institution is best expressed in the formula 'Self-development in an atmosphere of freedom,' as contrasted with the aim of the school, which is 'Training in an atmosphere of restraint or discipline'; in the school the teacher is dominant, because it is possible to pass on a form, to teach an art; but in the library the pupil strikes out his own line, and becomes his own teacher; the library supplies the material upon which the powers awakened and trained in the school can be exercised; the library and the school depend upon different ideas, deal with different material in different ways, and there is no administrative relation between the two; furthermore, the contacts of the library with organized education necessarily cease at the point where the educational machinery itself terminates, but the library continues as an educational force of national importance in its contacts with the whole social, political, and intellectual life of the community; that the recognition of the true place of the library in education must carry with it the provision of adequate financial resources, which is impossible under the present limitations on the library rate; such limitation, therefore, should be removed at the earliest possible moment."

(2) "That the creation in the child of intellectual interests, which is furthered by a love of books, is an urgent national need; that while it is the business of the school to foster the desire to know, it is the business of the library to give adequate opportunity for the satisfaction of this desire; that library work with children ought to be the basis of all other library work; that reading-rooms should be provided in all public libraries, where children may read books in attractive surroundings, under the sympathetic and tactful

guidance of trained children's librarians; but that such provision will be largely futile except under the conditions which experience, especially in America where the importance of this work has long been recognized and where it is highly developed, has shown to be essential to success."

(3) "That in view of meeting trade conditions after the war, commercial libraries should be established in all the great trade centres of the kingdom, as a part of the municipal library system, where business men may obtain reliable commercial information, by means of the collection and arrangement for rapid consultation of all Government and other publications relating to commerce; that such libraries should act as outliers or branches of the Commercial Intelligence Department of the Board of Trade; and that such Department should further the work of these libraries in every possible way; that in the smaller towns commercial collections should be formed."

(4) "That technical libraries are as essential, both to technical education and to manufacture, as the laboratory or the workshop; that discovery and invention are stimulated by books; that the technical library, therefore, should be established as a special department of the public library in all important manufacturing towns, with a special organization, including a librarian trained not only in library method and in the bibliography of technology, but possessing also a sufficient technical knowledge to enable him to act as a source of information to inquirers."

(5) "That collections of books and other printed and manuscript matter bearing upon questions of local government should be established in connexion with municipalities; that such collections to be effective must be in charge of a trained librarian; that the management of such collections should be placed under the library committee; that the cost of such libraries will be small in proportion to the valuable part they will play in serving the needs, not only of officials entrusted with the carrying out of public work, but also of members of the municipality responsible for local government finance and policy."

The suggestions in these resolutions have borne ample fruit, as the succeeding chapters show. Number (5), however, still remains an ideal for this country, although one or two towns have in a modest manner tried to realize it. A restatement of standards of library work, which modifies all former deliberations, was made in the connected series of papers which were submitted to the Library Association Conference at Manchester in 1936. The papers appeared in *The Library Association Record*, for 1936, and have been reprinted as a separate volume.

7. Much discussion arose after the Great War on education generally, which in some degree involved libraries. The Adult

Education Committee of the short-lived Ministry of Reconstruction issued a brief report advocating, amongst other things, the placing of libraries under local education committees, a suggestion which has found no favour in any important town. For London this would mean taking libraries from the boroughs and placing them in the care of the county. It contained other arguments and recommendations which may have influenced but certainly were to some extent resolved by the Public Libraries Act of 1919, the passing of which on 23rd December of that year was the most important legislative event for public libraries since the passing of the initial Act in 1850. This Act is dealt with in Chapter II, but it will be well to remark that it made the county council a library authority, and so gave legal sanction to the most significant recent development of the public library system, the "county library"; it deprived smaller authorities which had not yet adopted the Acts, or spent money under them, of their unfettered power to adopt or refrain from adopting them; and it gave a new significance to the local education committee in towns in relation to libraries. Above all it removed entirely the shackles of the "penny rate limit"; and set libraries free financially. By a short measure subsequently all the powers, excepting financial ones, of the former Local Government Board concerning libraries were transferred to the Board of Education, which thus became the Government department most closely related to them. The sanctioning body for loans, etc., is the Ministry of Health, but the Ministry appears always to be advised by the Board of Education.

8. It was natural that some enquiry should follow upon the larger financial powers bestowed upon library authorities; and in 1924 Mr. C. P. Trevelyan appointed a Committee under the chairmanship of Sir Frederic G. Kenyon, the director of the British Museum, and with Mr. C. O. G. Douie as secretary, to inquire into the adequacy of existing library provision under the Public Libraries Acts and the means of extending it in relation to other public libraries and the general system of national education. The Committee consisted of publicists and educationists, and included five librarians, three of whom were or had been municipal librarians. After an exhaustive enquiry the Committee published its findings under the title *PUBLIC LIBRARIES COMMITTEE: Report on Public Libraries in England and Wales; presented by the President of the Board of Education to Parliament by Command of His Majesty, May,*

1927 (H.M. Stationery Office, 6s. net. A reprint, with a new preface and without such of the tables as the passage of time had made inapplicable was issued in 1935). The report is a *seriatim* study of the best orthodox public library practice and policy, which advocates few changes either of a legislative or administrative character. Chapter IX of the Report summarizes its conclusions and recommendations. They aim generally at the establishment of an organized national service on a voluntary basis, in which the National Central Library with its related special libraries, the urban libraries, and the county libraries are linked so that they supplement one another; with a better trained and paid service. It deals also with cataloguing and classification, the distribution of Government publications, relations with adult education, special terms for library purchases of books, and other matters which are dealt with in their appropriate places in this MANUAL; and gives the bye-laws usually issued by the Board of Education, a conservative, common-sense note on library planning. It has a mass of statistical tables based on wide enquiry from which average financial and other factors were deduced. As, however, much progress has been made since 1923-24 when the statistics were collected, and many of the deductions are from averages of what was distinctly a meagrely-financed service, the factors are all too low for modern use. One of the interesting features of the Report is the general unanimity of the expert witnesses on all matters that are fundamental in library work and policy. It reads much like a version of Brown's *Manual* with the technicalities left out; and is a remarkable vindication of the general lines of teaching enunciated by Brown.

9. The Act of 1919 made possible the development of what at first were called rural libraries but are now known, more appropriately, as county libraries. For centuries effort had been made, with some success in some counties, but with little in most, to provide a library service for the dweller in the small town and village and for the isolated reader. In order to develop the matter, in 1914 the Carnegie Trustees engaged Professor W. G. S. Adams, now Warden of All Souls College, Oxford, to investigate library services generally, and also the best means of producing a rural library scheme. In his enquiry he was associated with several public librarians, particularly J. L. Dougan, then librarian of Oxford, and L. Stanley Jast, then of Croydon, and the result was the *Report on Library Provision and Policy* which the Trust published in 1915.

This led the Trustees to make experiments with selected counties and towns, which in a very short space have resulted in the County Library System, to a consideration of which Chapter XXXV is devoted. Suffice it to say here that every county in England and most counties in Scotland, Wales and Ireland have adopted and have put into working the Libraries Acts. Libraries have grown as their advocates believed they would, and to-day there are few people in the British Isles who are not within reach of a library service.

10. Contemporaneously with the growth of the county library has been the rise from modest proportions of the National Central Library, and its latest achievement, the voluntary Regional Library Systems which are the most striking example of voluntary co-operation of local authorities and other owners of libraries on a national scale that exists. These receive fuller treatment in Chapter XXXVI. The library service of the British Isles, with all its admitted inadequacies, is the most highly organized that exists and it has incalculable potentialities.

11. This chapter may fitly include a few words on James Duff Brown, to whom this MANUAL owed its existence, although hardly a sentence of his remains in this edition. In the third edition a fairly full memoir was given, and as that work survives in most public libraries it need not be repeated here; but new readers should be introduced to the memory of the man who was one of the influences on British public libraries. Brown was born in Edinburgh in 1862, and entered the Mitchell Library, Glasgow, as a boy. Here he obtained his training, and in his leisure compiled a substantial *Biographical Dictionary of Musicians* and wrote some smaller books. In 1888 he became the librarian of Clerkenwell, now the Finsbury Central Library, where he won fame, even notoriety, by introducing the open shelf system in 1894. He served on the Library Association Council, gave lectures in librarianship at the London School of Economics, and was an examiner for the Library Association. Throughout life his pen was active, and his books are to be found in all libraries, although they are mostly out-of-print to-day. His chief works were a small *Manual of Library Classification* (1898), a pioneer work of a valuable kind; his *Manual of Library Economy* (1903), and his remarkable *Subject Classification* (1906). His interest in music, as shown by his dictionary, was further evidenced by his *Characteristic Songs and Dances of All Nations* (1901), produced in collaboration

with Alfred Moffat. He also founded the monthly periodical, *The Library World*, and wrote for it for many years. In person he was small, vivid and intensely alive, and was the possessor of a capital dry quiet Scottish wit. As a writer he was clear, had style although he scorned it, and all his work was marked by sterling common sense. His main contributions to practical librarianship were the introduction of the safeguarded open-access system, the class-list catalogue, the library bulletin, as well as the knowledge his works presented.

In 1904 Brown became borough librarian of Islington, and provided that place with libraries which have found many admirers and imitators. His chief characteristic, in the eyes of the present writer who was one of his pupils, was his kindly encouragement and invariable courtesy to all, even the youngest, who sought his help. He was probably the foremost British library influence of his time. His health was always delicate, and he died on 26th February 1914, and is buried in the Great Northern Cemetery, New Southgate, in North London.

12. Bibliography.—This list, and the bibliographies which appear at the ends of the succeeding chapters, are as a rule restricted to monographs. The student should consult *A Bibliography of Librarianship* by Margaret Burton and Marion E. Vosburgh (The Library Association, 1934) for a general classed and annotated account of available books in all languages except Oriental and Slavonic. The indexes to the various library journals are the necessary clues to current library writings, but the ground for the years named in their respective titles is covered by Cannons's *Bibliography of Library Economy*, 1876-1920 (1927), and its continuation *Library Literature*, 1921-1932 (1934). Cannons covers only periodicals, while the other work includes books as well. Both are published by the American Library Association. It is perhaps not superfluous to remind younger library students that the greatest library activity exists in America (as it ought to do, seeing the size and wealth of the U.S.), but also that other countries have libraries and library science which deserve examination and continued acquaintance.

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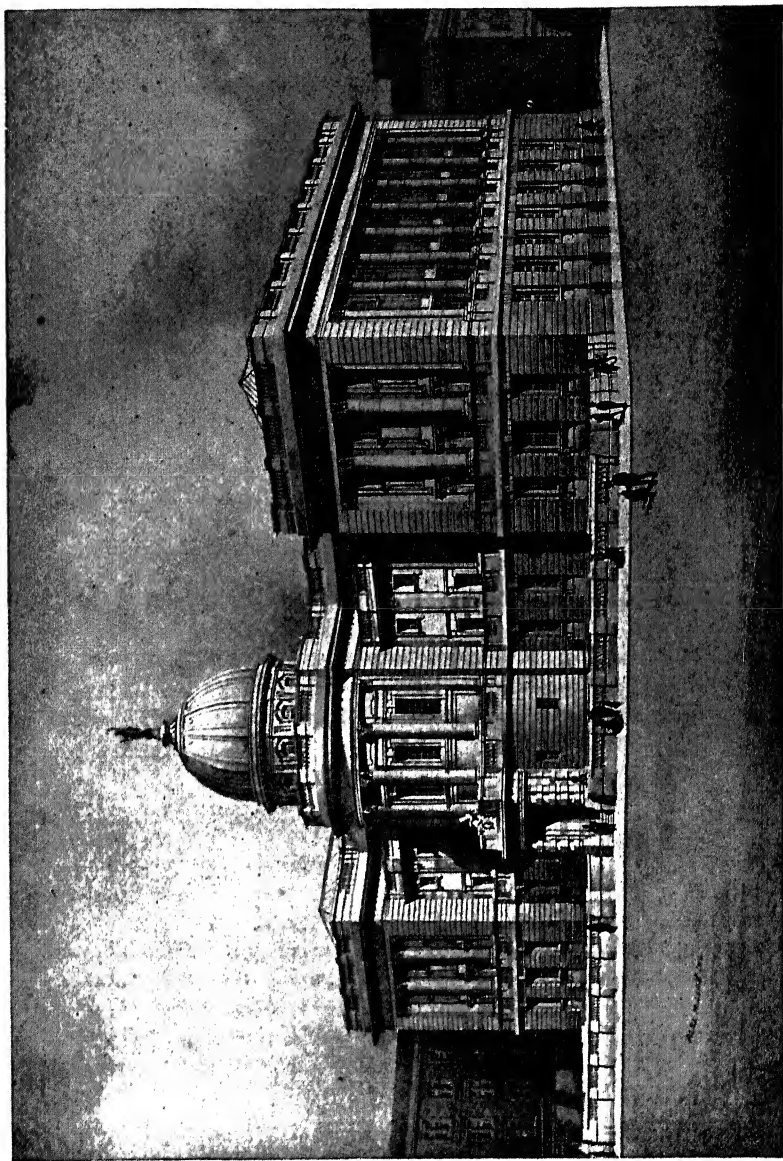


FIG. 2.—The Mitchell Library, Glasgow.

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CHAPTER II

LEGISLATION

13. Public Libraries are local in their origin and in their management. The central governments of all parts of the British Isles have no concern with their administration, except that they reserve powers of approving library bye-laws, sanctioning loans for the establishment of libraries and the appropriation of property, and enabling transfers under the 1919 Act from town to county and county to town. Loans in England and Wales are sanctioned by the Ministry of Health, but all other powers are exercised by the Board of Education. Libraries are not subject to government inspection as are council schools, and they receive no money from the national exchequer.

14. **Acts of Parliament.**—There is now no consolidated Act dealing with public libraries for any part of the British Isles. The Act of 1892 mentioned hereunder, was such an Act, but in vital provisions it was amended and modified by the Act of 1919 while still retaining force for certain important matters. This is a weakness and complication of library law at present, as all the existing Acts should be consulted if it is desired to understand the whole of a library authority's power and duties. The following is a list of the Acts of Parliament which deal with public libraries in England and Wales.

15.

ENGLAND AND WALES

1892. "55 & 66 Vict., c. 53. An Act to consolidate and amend the law relating to Public Libraries."

(The principal Act, the most important modification of which is the 1919 Act.)

1893. "56 Vict., c. 11. An Act to amend the Public Libraries Act, 1892."

1898. "61 & 62 Vict., c. 53. An Act to provide for the Punishment of Offences in Libraries."

1919. "9 & 10 Geo. 5, c. 93. An Act to amend the Public Libraries Acts 1892 to 1901, and to repeal so much of the Museums Act, 1891, as authorizes the provision of Museums in England and Wales."

The classic work on the subject of library law is G. F. Chambers's and H. West Fovargue's *The Law relating to Public Libraries and Museums and Literary and Scientific Institutions*, fourth edition, 1899, which gives the statutes and notes on leading cases to its date. Fovargue also wrote in 1910 and revised in 1922 a very brief *Summary of the Law Relating to Public Libraries*. A commendable book is Arthur R. Hewitt's *The Law Relating to Public Libraries in England and Wales*, 1930, which gives the principal Acts and subsidiary legislation, with useful notes. Hewitt has also provided a reliable *Summary of Public Library Law*, 1932. A somewhat different but excellent book is C. R. Sanderson's *Library Law*, 1925, a work by a well-known librarian teacher which classifies and expounds the subjects in library legislation.

Our business here will be to give only a brief account of the authorities which may provide libraries and the main conditions of such provision. The knowledge of law that a librarian requires personally is not extensive, and in all doubtful points he will be required by his committee to consult the solicitor of his authority; but false steps may be avoided if the main principles are known.

16. Authorities.—Under the Act of 1919 library provision may be made by the Councils of

1. The Counties,
2. The City of London,
3. Metropolitan Boroughs,
4. County Boroughs,

who are the major authorities, each occupying independent territory; but the Councils of places not of "county" status; *i.e.*,

5. Boroughs,
6. Urban Districts,
7. Rural Parishes,

may remain library authorities if they had adopted the Acts and had actually spent money on their administration in the year previous to the date on which the county adopted the Acts. This last provision was intended to foil the tactics of some local authorities who, fearing the adoption of the Acts by the county, adopted them with no immediate intention of putting them into operation. In simple statement, a county council may adopt the Acts for the whole county area, but must exclude existing operative library authorities except when these desire to be included.

17. Authorities: The County.—In practice the initiating body for the adoption of the Acts in a county is the County Education Committee, on whose report they may be adopted by a simple resolution of the county council. The resolution must specify the area to which the Acts are applicable, and this, as we have shown, is for the whole administrative area, as a rule, with the exception of boroughs, urban districts and parishes where the Acts are already in *active* operation. The rate, which may be of any amount that the library authority pleases, is levied over the whole area and applied to the whole. Any existing library district may, if it desires, and with the consent of the county council, relinquish its powers to the county council; and although in actual practice few have done this, the libraries of smaller urban authorities have found it to their advantage to enter into arrangements for mutual service with the county. On the other hand, the larger districts, with the sanction of the Board of Education, may be allowed by the county council to become independent library authorities. While the county rate is levied over the whole administrative area, with the exception of those districts thus made independent, any district may apply for a superior service which in this case is paid for by an additional rate levied on the district desiring it. This is known as “differential rating.” The library powers of the county, it is seen, are exercised by its education committee, except the raising of loans and the levying of rates, and the libraries are thus held to be part of the education services of the county.

18. Authorities: The City of London.—The Acts were adopted by a simple resolution of the Common Council.

19. Authorities: Combination of Urban Districts.—Any two or more urban districts may combine to provide a library service for the whole or parts of their areas. Such combination exist between Croydon and Lambeth to provide Upper Norwood with a library, and Cockermouth and Papworth are two authorities combining their whole areas. Such libraries are usually administered by a joint committee from the two areas which has delegation of powers.

20. Authorities: County Boroughs, Boroughs, Urban Districts.—In these the Acts were adopted by an ordinary resolution of the council, and that power still exists for county boroughs, although at the time of writing all county boroughs in England and Wales are already library authorities in that all have adopted the Acts. Boroughs and urban districts cannot

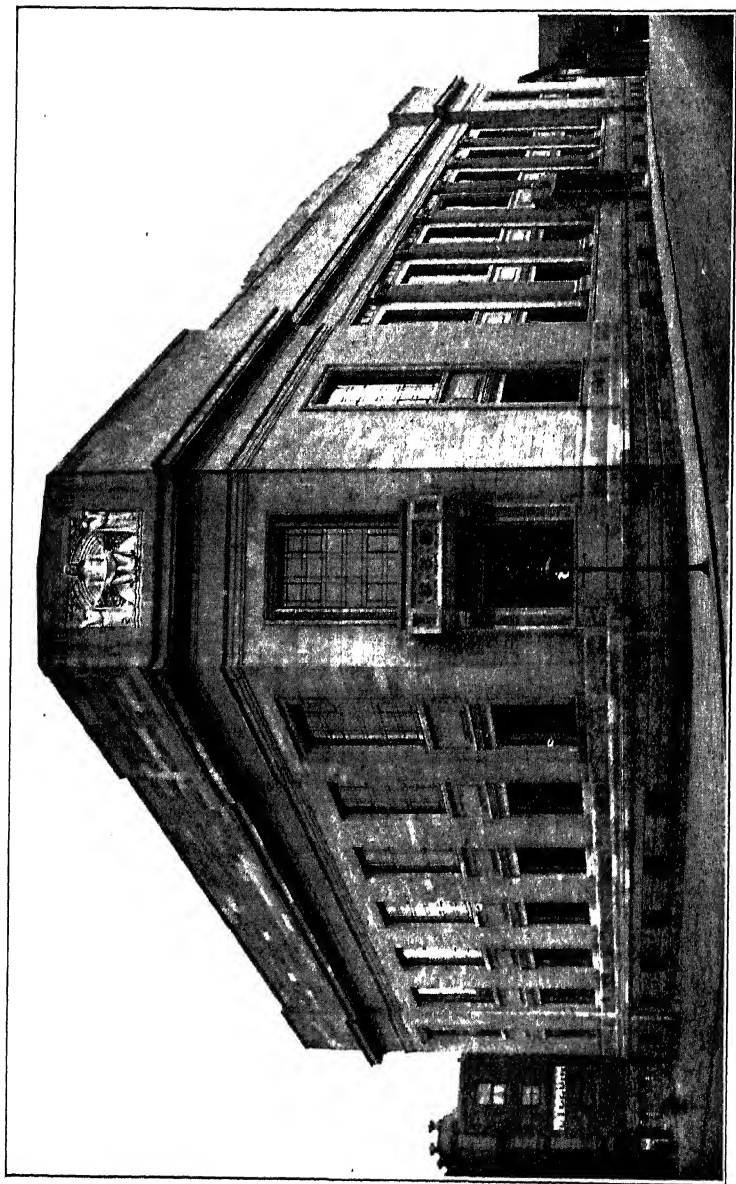


FIG. 3.—The Central Library, Sheffield.

now pass such a resolution unless the county in which they are situated has not itself adopted the Acts ; if it has, they come into the general county scheme. Where, as we have said, they were functioning library authorities before the county became a library authority, they maintain their independence if they so desire—as apparently most of them do. The 1919 Act gives special suggestions in that it provides that the county borough may, if it desires, delegate the powers of the library authority to its education committee, but few towns have availed themselves of this most dubious privilege. In the event of a new county borough newly establishing a library service—a not very probable occasion—the matter must first be referred for report to the education committee unless the matter is considered to be urgent—again, a rather unlikely occurrence. It is carefully to be noted, too, that if a county borough (a part II education authority) *initiates* a library service now, its powers are to be carried out by its education committee.

21. Parishes.—A rural parish might adopt the Acts by a resolution of a parish meeting called on the demand of ten or more parish voters, or alternatively by a poll of the parish. As, however, these conditions now apply only in counties which are not library authorities, there will probably be very little future need of these methods.

22. The Library Rate.—The Act of 1919 removed the limitation on the library rate which had stultified libraries since 1855. It is now in the power of any library authority to raise any amount that may be deemed necessary for library purposes. There is, however, the important proviso that if any authority by resolution declares that the rate to be levied in any one financial year shall not exceed a specified sum in the pound, the power to raise the rate shall be limited accordingly for that financial year. The rates are raised in the county from the county fund ; in the county borough and borough from the borough fund or consolidated rate, or from a separate rate levied in the same manner as these ; in a metropolitan borough from the general rate ; in a parish from the poor rate ; and in the City of London from the consolidated rate or a separate rate similarly levied. All authorities except parishes may, with the sanction of the Ministry of Health, borrow money for library purposes on the security of the rates. In parishes the consent of the parish meeting and the county council are also necessary.

23. What May be Provided.—Libraries, Museums and Art.

Galleries may be provided under the Libraries Acts with furniture and fittings, books, newspapers, maps, specimens ; and expenditure may be incurred in maintaining these. Payment for lectures is not provided for, and expenditure upon them is held to be illegal and is surcharged by district auditors ; but in towns this is not strictly enforced as a rule.

24. Powers and Duties.—The library authority appoints a committee to administer the Acts. In counties this is a sub-committee of the education committee, which consists “either in whole, or in part, of members of the education committee.” In county boroughs and urban districts the committee may be a committee consisting of members of council, or of members of council and co-opted members, or it may be a sub-committee of the education committee as for county schemes. The library authority may decide that the library committee is to be either a “recommending committee,” the proceedings of which must be approved before they are carried into execution, or it may delegate some or all of its powers to the committee, except the raising of loans or the levying of rates, which are always reserved.

25. The various powers of the library committee acting on behalf of the library authority may be summarized briefly :

1. The acquisition of lands and buildings for library purposes which are already in possession of the library authority. A county council or a county borough council may also be authorized to purchase lands compulsorily, but the authorization must come from the Ministry of Health.
2. Lands or buildings may be sold or exchanged for lands or buildings or for money, but the lands, buildings or money thus acquired must be devoted to the better development of libraries as approved by the Board of Education. If any property acquired for library purposes is not required for the time being it may be let, but the rents must be used for library purposes.
3. To make bye-laws and regulations for the administration and use of libraries. Regulations in themselves have no legal validity unless supported by bye-laws which have in each case received the sanction of the Board of Education.
4. The appointment and dismissal of officers.
5. To keep accounts of receipts and expenditure which must be audited as are the other accounts of local authorities.

26. Other Provisions and Considerations.—All rate-supported libraries must lend books without charge for their use to persons within the library area ; and the borrowing privilege may be extended to non-residents without or with a charge for it. Nor must any charge be made for admission, but a library committee can safeguard its property by demanding that every user of a lending library must have a borrower's ticket. Vouchers of application and borrower's tickets must be supplied free to inhabitants of the library district.

27. Rescinding of Acts.—While, as noted above (17), a county council may relinquish its library powers over a district for the better library service of that district, or an urban district may relinquish its powers to the county council for a similar reason, there is no power expressed or implied by which an authority, which has once adopted the Acts, may rescind them. It appears to be the intention of the Acts that when once they are adopted they are adopted for all time. Nor may a library authority surrender, exchange or sell any library or part of a library except in order to provide better library accommodation or service. The quite definite pronouncement of the High Court on the action of the Westminster Council which sought to use the St. Martin's Library for other municipal purposes that this action was *ultra vires* unless equal or better premises were provided, made this quite clear.¹ A public authority cannot act to its own prejudice as a library authority.

28. Other Statutes.—The Public Library Law is further modified or extended by various other statutes which were passed for different purposes, and the principal Acts of this kind are as follows :

“ 24 & 25 Vict., c. 97. An Act to consolidate and amend the Statute Law of England and Ireland relating to malicious injuries to property,” 1861.

This gives power to prosecute for misdemeanour any person who unlawfully and maliciously destroys or damages any book, manuscript, etc., in any public museum, gallery, cabinet or library.

“ 56 & 57 Vict., c. 73. An Act to make further provision for local government in England and Wales,” 1894.

Enables rural parishes to adopt the Public Libraries Act, 1892, by means of a parish meeting or poll of the voters in the parish.

“ 62 & 63 Vict., c. 14. An Act to make better provision for local government in London,” 1899.

¹ *Law Journal Reports*, 1924, The Chancery Division, pp. 583-87.

Confers the power of adopting the Public Libraries Act, 1892, on the Metropolitan Borough Councils, by extending to them the provisions of the Public Libraries Act, 1893.

29.

SCOTLAND

The Acts in force for Scotland are as follows :

1887. " 50 & 51 Vict., c. 42. An Act to amend and consolidate the Public Libraries (Scotland) Acts."

(The principal Act, the most important modification of which are the 1919 and 1920 Acts below.)

1894. " 57 & 58 Vict., c. 20. An Act to amend the Public Libraries Consolidation (Scotland) Act, 1887."

1899. " 62 & 63 Vict., c. 5. An Act to amend the Public Libraries (Scotland) Acts."

1919. " 8 & 9 Geo. V., c. 48. An Act to make provision with respect to Education in Scotland and for purposes connected therewith."

1920. " 10 & 11 Geo. V., c. 45. An Act to amend the Public Libraries Consolidation (Scotland) Act, 1887."

30. Scottish library legislation confers the same powers and duties in general as does that for England and Wales, but there are important differences. In finance, the one-penny rate limit was raised by the 1920 Act to threepence, and not removed as in England and Wales. The authorities in Scotland are the burghs and the parish boards, the method of adopting the Acts in the former being by resolution of the magistrates and council, and in the parishes by vote of the householders. Land may be rented, purchased or appropriated, and all the necessities of a library service provided. Library committees must consist half of members of the local authority, half of other local householders. The committee has power to make bye-laws and impose penalties not exceeding £5 for each offence. Larger powers of estimating are also given in Scotland; a library committee may thus make its estimate, which of course must be within the statutory limit, and the library authority must provide this amount and hand it to the committee.

Another difference is that formal Scottish library law makes no reference to counties, but powers to supply books to adults and to children are conferred upon county education authorities by the Education (Scotland) Act, 1918. These powers permit the council not only to provide an independent library service where necessary, but also "to enter into arrangements with public libraries, and all expenses incurred by an education authority for those purposes shall be chargeable to the county

education fund," but in burghs and parishes which were already library authorities no charge is to be levied by the county until the county rate exceeds in amount that raised by these local authorities, and then only the difference can be levied. County schemes are administered by a committee of the education authority, and co-option to this committee is permissive and not compulsory.

31.**IRELAND**

1855. "18 & 19 Vict., c. 40. An Act for further promoting the establishment of Free Public Libraries and Museums in Ireland."

(The principal Act.)

1877. "40 & 41 Vict., c. 15. An Act to amend the Public Libraries (Ireland) Act, 1855."

1894. "57 & 58 Vict., c. 38. An Act to amend the Public Libraries (Ireland) Acts."

1902. "The Public Libraries (Ireland) Amendment Act."

(Gives power to district councils to adopt the Acts, and empowers county councils to make grants in aid of libraries).

1911. "1 & 2 Geo. V., c. 9. An Act to amend The Public Libraries (Ireland) Acts, 1855 to 1902, as respects the provision of Art Galleries in County Boroughs, etc."

1920. "10 & 11 Geo. V. An Act to amend section eight of the Public Libraries (Ireland) Act, 1855, and for other purposes incidental thereto."

NORTHERN IRELAND

1924. Public Libraries Act (N.I.).

IRISH FREE STATE

1925. Irish Free State Local Government Act.

32. Although Northern Ireland is now severed from the Irish Free State politically, both inherit the library laws and the powers prescribed by them to the date of separation; thus, so far as the later Acts of 1924 for Northern Ireland and 1925 for the Free State do not repeal them, all the Acts above are still valid. The provisions are again in general similar to those in other parts of the British Isles, and the only exceptions that are worthy of note are as follows:

When an urban population has declared by poll its wish to adopt the Acts, if the local authority does not proceed in the matter, a Government Department can be called in to enforce their adequate carrying out.

In 1920 the rate limit was raised to threepence, but in county boroughs, with the sanction of Government, this might be increased to sixpence.

After the separation, the Act of 1924 for Northern Ireland transferred all rural district library powers to the county councils, and most unfortunately reinstated the one-penny rate limitation, except that in certain cases it may be extended to threepence.

The Irish Free State Act of 1925 also transferred the powers of the district councils to the county councils, and was unique in that it authorized payment of lecture costs.

NON-MUNICIPAL LIBRARIES

33. Acts of Parliament.—The legislation affecting the large number of British libraries which are not supported out of the rates is neither extensive nor satisfactory. The chief feature of most of the Acts of Parliament which have been passed seems to be the benevolent one of granting certain facilities to various kinds of landowners to divest themselves of their property in order to provide sites for literary and scientific institutions. There are similar clauses in the Public Libraries Acts, and, of course, most of the Acts named apply to municipal libraries; but in reality this kind of legislation is not particularly valuable. To make the transfer of land for public purposes more easy is quite laudable, but it has not yet had the effect of inducing landowners to part with free plots of land as building sites, either to public library authorities or literary institutions.

The principal Act bearing on literary and scientific institutions is entitled "An Act to afford greater facilities for the establishment of Institutions for the promotion of Literature and Science and the Fine Arts, and to provide for their better regulation," 17 & 18 Vict., c. 112, 1854. This is nearly all taken up with provisions for transfers of lands and other property, and with a few regulations concerning members, rules, altering, extending or dissolving the institution, etc. This Act was afterwards to some extent modified by "An Act to facilitate the transfer of Schools for Science and Art to Local Authorities," 54 & 55 Vict., c. 61, 1891. These, and the other Acts referred to, which deal with transfers of property, have had very little to do with the development of voluntary literary and scientific institutions or libraries; the principal statute under which most of them are now governed being an Act passed primarily for quite a different purpose. This is the "Act to amend the 'Companies Act, 1862,'" 30 & 31 Vict., c. 131, 1867, under Section 23 of which power is given the Board of Trade to grant licences to literary and similar associations, providing for

registration with limited liability, and conferring all the privileges attaching to limited companies. In connexion with this Act, and those of 1862 and 1877, the Board of Trade have issued a series of circulars and forms, which include draft rules, articles of association, etc. Under these licences a considerable number of British literary institutions have been established and organized.

BRITISH COLONIAL LIBRARY LEGISLATION

34. Colonial library law has proceeded very much on the lines adopted in the mother country, and in every case the permissive character of the Acts has been preserved, and in most cases the rate limitation ; but these matters are in a state of flux, and the following paragraphs present a position which is in process of change.

35. In **South Africa** a Government proclamation established the South African Public Library at Cape Town in 1818. This was further regulated by an ordinance passed in 1836, which gave the library the right to receive a free copy of every publication issued in **CAPE COLONY**. Other libraries in the large towns used to receive grants from the Government and a large number of smaller libraries grants equal to the annual average amount raised by subscriptions and donations during the three preceding years ; but in no case did the Parliamentary grant exceed £150 for any one library in one year. No grants were made if less than £25 was raised by subscription. In return for the grant, reading-rooms and reference libraries were to be open free to the public, and an annual report had to be presented to the Government. Latterly the Union Government has left the making of the grants to the provincial legislative authorities, with the result that they now differ considerably. Books are only lent for home reading to subscribers. In 1874 an Act was passed by the Legislature of Natal for regulating literary and other societies not legally incorporated.

36. In **Canada**, under a General Libraries Act of 1854, county councils were authorized to establish four classes of libraries : (1) Ordinary common school libraries in each schoolhouse for the use of children and ratepayers ; (2) a general public library available to all ratepayers in the municipality ; (3) professional libraries of books on teaching, etc., for teachers only ; and (4) a library in any public institution under the control of a municipality. Arrangements were made whereby the Education Office sold books at low rates to the school libraries ; and

afterwards the Education Department of the Legislature gave annual grants, equal to the amounts contributed by members for book purchase, to mechanics' institutes, etc., and subsequently increased such grants for books to \$400 (£80) annually. The province of Ontario, in 1882, passed "An Act to provide for the Establishment of Free Libraries," on lines very similar to the English Acts. Power is given any city, town or incorporated village to provide libraries, newsrooms, museums and branches, on the petition and with the consent of the qualified electors. The most important Act is that for Ontario, 1920, which authorizes the establishment of libraries in any city, town, township, village or school district. Library Boards composed of persons who are not members of the local council or education authorities are given extensive powers in the administration of libraries, the council merely determining the aggregate of the rate and raising it, and receiving an annual report from the Board. The rate must not exceed 50 cents per head of the population, except by resolution of the council, which can increase it to 75 cents. The Board may establish and maintain libraries, art galleries, and provide books, etc., and the means of exploiting them, including lectures and cinema-apparatus. The Minister of Education is authorized to apportion money granted by Parliament for libraries, to establish library schools and to determine the qualification of librarians, and to manage travelling libraries; to make grants to library boards, to pay salaries of officers of his department employed in the interests of libraries in general; use publicity methods, establish a bureau of home study (for the production of reading lists); and he has other liberal powers. The Minister of Education, it will be observed, is the controller of libraries in Ontario. In 1895 an Act was passed in Ontario to enable mechanics' institutes to change their names and transfer their property to municipalities on condition that the libraries were made free to the public.

37. The **Australian** colonies have all passed separate laws, somewhat similar to those in force in other parts of the Empire, in regard to their adoption being left to local option, and rates being more or less limited. In 1870 VICTORIA passed an Act establishing the Library, Museum and National Art Gallery at Melbourne, and in 1885 "The Free Libraries Act" was passed. But, in 1890, these Acts were repealed by "An Act to consolidate the Laws relating to Libraries." The Melbourne Public Library, which was established in 1853, is now wholly supported by Government, and it lends books to any municipality in the

colony. In addition, the Government make grants from public funds to most of the mechanics' institutions, athenaeums and other literary societies in Victoria.

38. SOUTH AUSTRALIA has quite a body of library laws, dating from 1863, when the South Australian Institution was incorporated, but most of them have been repealed or incorporated in the two principal Acts regulating institutes and free libraries. By the various Acts passed in connexion with institutes or literary societies, grants in aid are made by Parliament on lines similar to those in force in the other colonies, while rules and regulations are made and power given to transfer such institutes to the municipalities. Public libraries are regulated by "An Act to establish Free Libraries in Corporate Towns and District Councils," 1898, subsequently amended by an Act of 1902. This Act gives local authorities power, on the request and with the consent of the ratepayers, to adopt the Act, subject to the rate not exceeding 3d. in the £. Municipal libraries are also entitled to receive the same grants as are made to institutes.

39. In NEW SOUTH WALES public libraries may be established under the "Municipalities Act," 1867. The Government make grants for the purchase of books on a scale according to population, and other funds must be provided by the subscriptions of members. Schools of art are entitled to receive a Government grant in proportion to the amount of monetary support accorded by the public. In addition, the Sydney Public Library (established in 1869) is entirely supported by the Government, and it sends out carefully selected boxes of books to institutes throughout New South Wales, the entire cost being defrayed by Parliament.

40. In WESTERN AUSTRALIA grants are made to institutes as in the other colonies, but there is no general Library Act in existence yet. In 1887 the Government established a Public Library at Perth, and contribute £3000 per annum for its maintenance. The only legislative enactment concerning libraries in Western Australia is an Act for establishing a Law and Parliamentary Library for the Legislature, which was passed in 1873 and amended in 1889.

41. QUEENSLAND passed an "Act to consolidate and amend the Laws relating to Municipal Institutions, and to provide more effectually for local government," 1878. This was extended by the "Divisional Boards Act" of 1887, and now Municipal Councils or Divisional Boards may make bye-laws for the estab-

lishment, maintenance and management of public libraries. Brisbane Free Public Library, the only library of importance opened under this Act, has an annual grant from the municipal funds of £1000. One hundred and forty schools of art throughout the colony also receive Government grants for library and other purposes to the extent of about 8s. 2d. for every pound subscribed by members.

42. TASMANIA has a model library law, which is worthy of adoption in every civilized country. It is contained in "An Act to amend the Law relating to Public Libraries," passed in 1867. It is so short, and so much to the point, that the whole of it may be quoted. After a two-line preamble it declares that: "The Municipal Council of every municipality may, from time to time, apply such sum as it sees fit, out of the rates of such municipality, in and towards the formation and maintenance of Public Libraries within such municipality." That is the whole Act, and it gives no indication of the grudging limitations which other countries inflict. The only blemish on this admirable statute is the fact that it is not compulsory. Most of the Tasmanian towns being small, only Hobart has put the library law into force, by appropriating a penny rate to the support of the Tasmanian Public Library (1849), which is also maintained by Government grants. The small libraries throughout Tasmania receive grants, on the usual conditions, from the Government.

43. IN NEW ZEALAND the principal Acts are: (1) "An Act to promote the establishment of Public Libraries," 1869, giving power for the governing body of a city, village or district to adopt the Act with the consent of the ratepayers, and to levy a rate not exceeding 1d. in the £; (2) "An Act to confer powers on Public Libraries and Mechanics' Institutes," 1875—a series of rules for incorporation and management; (3) "An Act to promote the establishment and support of Public Libraries," 1877. In this Act it is laid down that the grant for public libraries is to be apportioned among provincial districts, in proportion to the population of such districts, and that a subsidy equal to the amount of the library rate is to be paid to municipal libraries established under the Act of 1869. Free admission to reading-rooms is permitted, but no person to be allowed to borrow unless he contributes not less than 5s. per annum.

44. None of the **West Indian** dependencies have legislation relating to libraries, although grants are paid from Government

funds towards the maintenance of libraries in different British possessions.

45. In **India** the Government subsidizes only libraries connected with the leading departments of State, such as law and parliamentary libraries for the use of legislators and the Councils forming the Indian Government. The only public library systems in India have been established by native States. The Gaekwar of Baroda has instituted such a system, which extends from the capital city to the smallest village, and his example has been followed by the native State of Indore.

46. The British colonial libraries are thus established and regulated on lines very similar to the municipal libraries of this country, and literary institutions of all kinds are incorporated and recognized in the same way as in the United Kingdom. There are numerous differences, however, in points of detail, because, although the permissive clauses are retained for municipal libraries in every case, in some cases, such as Tasmania and South Australia, the rate limit is either non-existent or greatly increased. Again, it is a universal provision in colonial administration for the Governments to assist all kinds of libraries, to the extent of contributing, within limits, as much money as is raised by the subscriptions of members or produced by a municipal library rate. Also, more attempt is made, especially in Canada, to embody the libraries as part of the national system of education.

UNITED STATES

47. The Library Legislation of the United States is of very great importance, because of its variety, liberality and consistent aim to make libraries an essential part of the system of national education. An adequate account of it can only be gathered from the study of many books and particularly from the articles mentioned in the bibliography in section 51. In minor aspects the laws of individual states have been amended again and again; and all that can be attempted here is a sort of general view.

As Dr. Thomas Bray was the first to procure library legislation in England, so was he the first to obtain a law of this kind in North America. He founded a library in South Carolina, which in 1700 formed the subject of an Act passed by the Legislative Assembly of South Carolina for its regulation and protection. In 1715 a similar law for the same purpose was passed by the

Legislative Assembly of North Carolina. In subsequent years many laws were passed by different States for the incorporation and regulation of all kinds of social, subscription, mercantile and other libraries, much on the same lines as were found necessary in other countries, in order to give such associations legal standing and recognition. In some of the States laws have been enacted providing for the payment of an annual grant to proprietary libraries, on condition that they are made free to the general public for reference purposes. This plan of utilizing existing library facilities for the public benefit is common to both the United States and our own colonies, and there are many less effective ways of securing reading privileges at a comparatively cheap rate.

In the "Report of the Commissioner of Education" for the United States, 1895-96, vol. i, there is a very elaborate account of the "Library Legislation in the United States," to which reference must be made by those who want minute details of the laws of the different States of the Union. Here it is only possible to deal with the laws affecting school and municipal libraries, and to give typical examples of the legislation in each class.

In 1835 the New York State Legislature passed a law establishing libraries for the school districts of the State. These libraries were much extended and improved by later laws, and till 1853 they practically supplied the place of the public libraries. Other States established these school district libraries, open to scholars and all citizens, Massachusetts and Michigan following in 1837, Connecticut in 1839, Iowa and Rhode Island in 1840, and others at various dates down to 1876, when Colorado passed a similar law. The failure of this system in many places led to the first Town Library Law being passed by the Legislature of Massachusetts in 1848, under which the City of Boston was authorized to establish a free public library and levy a tax of \$5000, or £1000, for its support. This was the first State law passed in America, and in 1849 New Hampshire passed a general law for the whole State. Massachusetts next extended its library law from the City of Boston to the whole State in 1851, and Maine followed in 1854. The other northern States followed slowly, till now nearly all the States, save a few in the South and West, have laws enabling municipal libraries to be established. Previous to this, most of the States, as they became incorporated in the Union, established libraries for the use of the legislative councils in the capital towns of each State, and these State

Libraries, as they are called, constitute a very important class of public library in the United States. The first actual municipal library opened in the United States was that of the town of Peterboro', in New Hampshire, which in 1833 established and supported out of the local taxes a public library, which still exists. From this it appears that there was nothing either in the Federal or State law of the United States to prevent any town from supporting a library at the public expense if it saw fit. The principle of interference in local affairs by central authorities is, however, a thoroughly Anglo-Saxon convention or principle, and though the Federal Legislature in America does not impose local laws on the State authorities, these State legislatures impose the same restrictions upon local municipal authorities that are common throughout the British Empire.

The main provisions of the State Library Laws of America are :

- (1) The adoption of the library laws of the State by any city or municipal council, with or without the petition or consent of the ratepayers. The practice differs in the various States, but it is permissive and not compulsory in every State.
- (2) Power to levy a rate for the establishment and support of municipal libraries, varying from the fraction of a mill per dollar on the taxable value of the town to any sum the council may see fit to levy.
- (3) Power to appoint trustees and do everything necessary for the equipment and efficient administration of the libraries.

It is important to note that in the United States the basis of taxation is entirely different from what it is in this country. Here rental, minus a certain deduction, is adopted as the unit from which to make up the rateable value of a town. In the United States the value of all property is taken, instead of mere rental, as the unit from which the rateable value is built up. If a house in England is worth £420, and rents at £36, it would be assessed at about £30, and the library rate would be levied upon the £30, producing 2s. 6d.¹ In the United States the same house, plus contents, would pay rates on the £420, being the value of

¹ The principle holds, although to take £420 now (1936) as the value of a house is too low for England, and would be more so for America.

the property, but on a smaller poundage. One mill on the dollar is the thousandth part of 4s. 2d., or about one-twentieth of 1d. If, therefore, the library rate in an American town is 1 mill, or the twentieth of 1d., on the dollar, property valued at £420, or \$2100, would pay a total library rate of about 8s. 6d. Other classes of property, such as live stock, crops, etc., are also taxed so that in America the produce of even a comparatively small library rate is much greater than in a town the same size in England, and this fact should always be kept in mind when comparisons are being made between the library systems of the two countries.

In those States of America where a poll of the citizens is required before the libraries can be established, no special vote is taken, but instead, at the annual election of councillors, the voting papers bear the question : Are you in favour of a library being established at a tax of — mills on the dollar ? Thus at one election the municipal council is returned to office, and their library policy dictated to them by the ratepayers. The liberal library laws of the United States have produced a great number of very large and magnificently equipped public libraries.

In one respect the library authorities in the United States have shown more wisdom than those of other countries, by establishing Boards of Library Commissioners charged with the responsibility of supervising the library work of the whole of a State. These Library Commissions are established in some of the States, but not in all, and are generally composed of five or six educational experts. They have power to advise in the establishment of local libraries in every respect as regards selection of books, cataloguing, etc., and may expend public money in the purchase of books for libraries in towns which do not possess municipal libraries. They are also authorized to pay for all clerical work required in connexion with the Board, to issue reports and collect statistics, and in some cases to organize travelling libraries. All these State Library Commissions issue handbooks, and those of New Jersey and Wisconsin will give some idea of the important work in co-ordinating the library forces of America now being accomplished by these Commissions.

CONTINENTAL EUROPE

48. No country in Europe has a library law quite like that in force in Britain and the United States, but a certain amount of recognition is accorded to public libraries by the State in most

countries. Municipal libraries exist in France under State direction ; but in recent years movements for the establishment of municipal libraries on British or American lines have been initiated in several European countries. Such libraries are now to be found in Norway, Holland and Germany. In 1921, however, Belgium adopted a compulsory system of public libraries, aiming at the provision of one in each commune. At about this time Czecho-Slovakia adopted a similar law. Russia has definite library laws. Scandinavia and Denmark have laws which are quite liberal in character, and the movement is extending. In some cases endowed or university or royal libraries are recognized or partly supported by the State or the municipal authorities.

CONCLUSION

49. Future legislation in the British Isles is desirable in order to consolidate the welter of Acts under which libraries are administered, and to remove such anomalies as the present illegality of lectures in England and Wales and Scotland.

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CHAPTER III

COMMITTEES AND THEIR WORK

52. Appointment of Committees.—We already know that local government in Anglo-Saxon communities is in the charge of county or town councils, who, to carry out the special branches of their work, appoint committees whose business it is to formulate the policy and to direct in a general way the work of their executive officers. Libraries are managed in accordance with this tradition by library committees. The first step after the Libraries Acts have been adopted is the appointment of this committee. The best interests of the library are served by a committee which combines both the business and the professional qualities of a community. The framers of the Library Acts contemplated a committee formed in part of members of the council, and in part of people with literary, scientific and other cultural interests. Section 15, Sub-section 3, of the "Public Libraries Act, 1892," provides that "an urban authority may if it think fit appoint a committee and delegate to it all or any of its powers and duties under this section, and the said committee shall to the extent of such delegation be deemed to be the library authority. Persons appointed to be members of the committee need not be members of the urban authority." The Local Government Act of 1933 (Section 86 (3)) lays it down, however, that "at least two-thirds of the members of every committee shall be members of the local authority." The principle of co-opted members is also implied for county library sub-committees in the 1919 Act. The "Public Libraries (Ireland) Amendment Act, 1877," gives similar power to elect members outside the local authority. Section 4 provides that "the committee in which the general management, regulation and control of such libraries, museums or schools may be vested under the provision of the 12th Section of the principal Act may consist in part of persons not members of the council or board or commissioners." The "Public Libraries (Consolidation (Scotland) Act, 1887," in Section 18 provides that the local authority shall "appoint a

committee, consisting of not less than ten nor more than twenty members, half of whom shall be chosen from amongst the magistrates and council, or board, as the case may be, and the remaining half from amongst the householders of the burgh or parish other than the magistrates and council, or board, and three members of such committee shall form a quorum." It is further ordained, Section 21, that this committee "shall manage, regulate and control all libraries and museums established under this Act, or to which this Act applies; and shall have power to do all things necessary for such management." The value of the contribution which educated non-council members can make to a library is obvious. At the same time the preponderance of council members required by the Act we have cited is desirable because these are the direct representatives of the people whom the library serves and they alone have the power to vote in the council on its administration. Co-option is compulsory in the case of Education Committees, and so far as this principle is concerned the arguments for it on Library Committees are equally cogent.

53. Constitution of Committees.—The portions of the Acts already quoted make it plain that in Scotland the library committees have full "delegation of powers"; that is to say, are independent bodies, with power to provide everything necessary, without the sanction of the local authorities, or doing more than report their proceedings from time to time. In Ireland, under Section 12 of the principal Act, "the general management, regulation and control of such libraries and museums, etc., shall be, as to any borough, vested in and exercised by the council or board, and as to any town, in and by the town commissioners, or such committee as they respectively may from time to time appoint, who may from time to time purchase and provide the necessary fuel, books, appoint and dismiss officers, make rules," etc. This approximates closely to the English law, which differs from that of the Scottish in leaving the power of appointing an independent or semi-independent library committee in the discretion of the authority. The English Act has already been quoted in the previous section, and it now remains to give reasons for and against the independence of the library committee from the control of the local authority, save for the raising of loans, the levying of rates, and a few other major matters. In Scotland, the hybrid composition of the committee is regarded as a reason for giving it full delegation of powers, and this is an argument for a similar

method in England and Ireland. A mixed committee, it is contended, is entitled to act without the sanction of the authority, if only because its members cannot take part in the ratifying proceedings of the council. It must necessarily be the case that members of the council at large, who have concern with transport, water, drainage, health and many other non-literary matters, cannot have any intimate knowledge of library needs, and they often render nugatory the considered work of a library committee which has to submit to them.

A committee appointed to administer a measure in which powers and duties are so completely defined as in the Public Libraries Acts does not require the supervision that may be desirable over committees which carry out less clearly limited Acts.

While much experience thus favours this delegation of powers, other experience indicates that there is a real advantage in reporting committee proceedings to the council at regular intervals. The argument for freedom from this duty depended in a measure on the rate-limit, which disappeared in 1919. Now, a library committee makes its estimates as other committees do, and no great disadvantages have followed. It must be admitted that councils are jealous of spending bodies over whose actions they have no control, and they cannot be expected to attempt to gain any real knowledge of their work. Moreover, the ventilation of library matters in council is usually healthy and it promotes that publicity which all civic services require.

54. Delegation of Powers.—The question is one on which opinions may well differ, but the most common practice to-day is a part delegation of powers in which general control is limited to the raising of rates or loans, the appointment of chief officers, the provision of new buildings, and expenditures above a certain amount, say £50. In such reserved matters the library committee may be a *recommending* committee, a phrase which implies that what is recommended must be ratified before it can be carried out. In other matters the committee is a *reporting* committee, placing its principal activities before the council at times to be determined for its information and even criticism. Public libraries in the Metropolitan Boroughs are required by Section 8 (3) of the London Government Act, 1899, to receive the sanction of the Borough Council and its Finance Committee for expenditures over £50. A workable delegation, in formal language, is as follows :

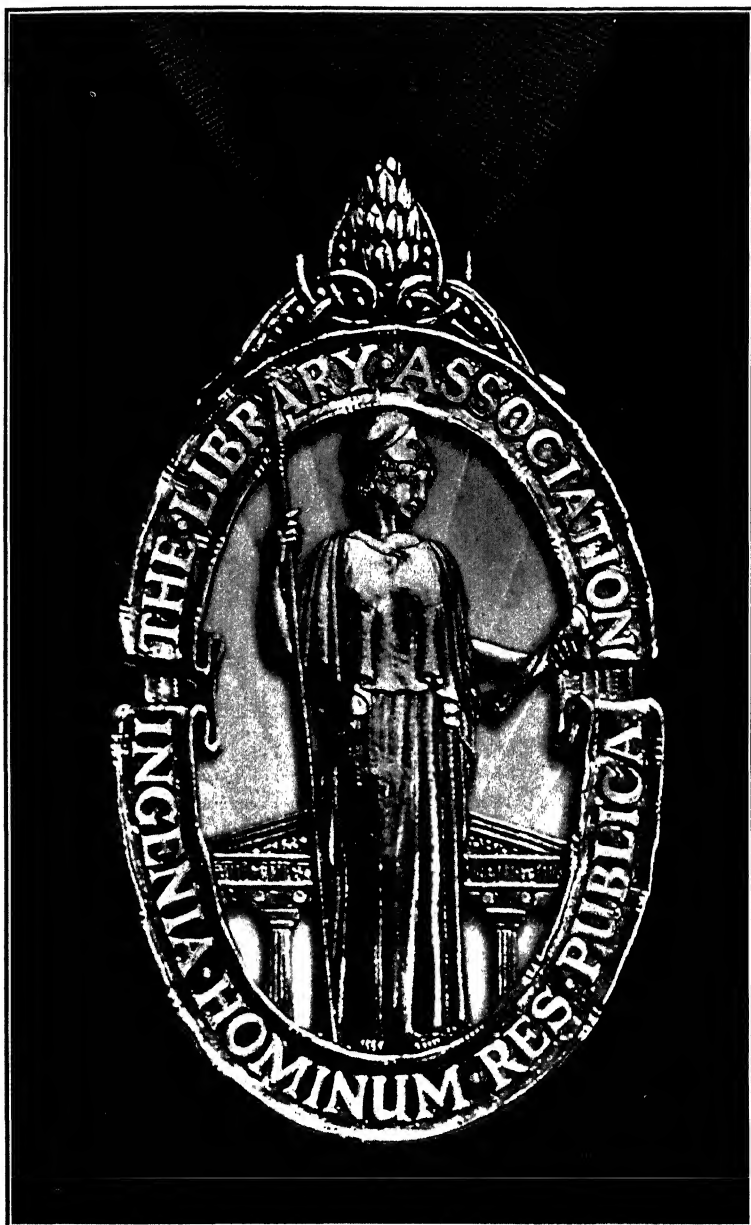


FIG. 4.—The Presidential Badge of the Library Association (Sections 141-153).

That the [*name of the authority*] hereby delegates to the Public Library Committee all the powers and duties vested in it as a library authority under the Public Libraries Acts, 1872-1919, with the following reservations :

1. The sanctions and raising of loans for new buildings or other purposes.
2. The making and collection of the annual library rate.
3. The confirmation of agreements with adjoining library authorities for the joint use of libraries.
4. The confirmation of the appointment or dismissal of the librarian.
5. The sanction of any scheme for the formation of branch libraries.
6. The proceedings of the Public Library Committee to be reported monthly to the [*name of authority*], but only for confirmation and sanction as regards Clauses 1 to 5 of this constitution.
7. The librarian to act as clerk to the Public Library Committee.

As regards Metropolitan borough councils, it may be desirable as we have implied, to add a clause to the effect that no expenditure exceeding £50 be incurred without an estimate being first obtained by the finance committee of the borough council. It is doubtful if even this restriction is necessary if, when the rate is made, the finance committee passes an estimate prepared by the library committee for the whole amount of the rate to be expended on general library purposes. Otherwise, it has been suggested that under this London Act fresh estimates are necessary every time £50 worth of books is ordered, but the legal view here appears to be that what is ordered is not a single article valued at £50 but several quite distinct articles each costing much less. The "Public Libraries Act (Amendments) Act, 1901," contains a clause showing that for library purposes a Metropolitan borough is an urban district.

55. Standing Orders.—The standing orders or bye-laws regulating public library committees need not be elaborate. Generally, they should be the same as those governing other committees of the local authority, with the exceptions as to powers. The committee should be elected annually by the local authority, and the number of members should be small rather than large. The needs of districts differ, but a public library committee of over twelve may be an encumbrance rather than a help to the institution. At the same time a larger committee means a larger representation on the council, and help from more people who are actually or nominally interested in the library service. Probably the largest committee in England is that at Wallasey, which has thirty members, of

whom thirteen are council members. Where such large committees exist the actual executive work usually devolves upon a sub-committee, such as the book sub-committee. Meetings are generally held once a month; certainly there is ordinarily no occasion for the committee to be called more often, and in some towns a quarterly meeting is found to be sufficient. A chairman should be elected annually by the committee; he should invariably be a council member, as he is the natural representative of the committee on the council, and its principal spokesman and advocate there and with the general public; but the vice-chairman may fittingly be a co-opted member. The principle of a constant change of chairman, adopted in some councils, may be justified because it prevents stagnation in some cases, but, of course, it is really followed in order that municipal honours shall circulate. It is not good if it is too frequent; few chairmen can become familiar with the work of a department and its staff in a single year. This is certainly true of libraries where knowledge and experience are required if a sound and consistent policy is to be pursued. The chairman is usually a man who combines business qualities with a liking for and belief in library work, although this combination is not always to be found. As the committee meets only once a month as a rule, and sometimes only once a quarter, the chairman is usually invested with certain powers. He can usually fill minor vacancies on the staff, authorize the purchase of urgent books, the making of repairs, and in every way maintain the service at its right level. All this, of course, he does on the recommendation and with the concurrence of the librarian. A chairman often does initiate purchases or proceedings of one kind and another, but the correct method is for the librarian to issue the written order for them, and it is presumed that he does so because he has his chairman's authority. All actions taken should be reported at the next meeting of the committee. The vice-chairman may act in all absences of the chairman and is his chief honorary consultant. Some libraries, of course, have chairmen of sub-committees, and these may also be consulted by the chairman of the committee and the librarian where emergency action appears to be necessary. The considerations which make constant change undesirable apply to the committee as a whole; its personnel should remain reasonably stable. A definite quorum should be determined; three members is a suitable one. The committee should have its own clerk.

There is much to be said for this being the librarian, as he is the person most familiar with library business, but in some places the standing orders require the Town Clerk or, in counties, the Education Officer or some other person to act as clerk. In practice, except where there is business of special character, a clerk from the department of the officers mentioned attends to take the minutes. The Public Libraries Acts require that a separate account be kept of receipts and expenditure from the library rate, and library committees should see that this is done in all cases where the accounts are kept and payments made by the council officials.

56. Duties of Committees.—To a considerable extent these are fixed by the terms in the delegation of powers, and the standing orders. But there are certain broad principles which should be observed by library committees in the ultimate interest of their work. The chief of these is that the committee is concerned rather with library policy than with library administration; with what shall be done rather than with how it shall be done. The planning, arrangement, staff-duties, and methods of a library are technical matters, and many libraries are stultified by well-meant and conscientious interference in details of this character by library committees, although it is quite clear that legally the committee can so interfere if it desires. The committee has certainly the right, and it is its duty, to expect the results of its policy to be visibly effective in the library service, but it would be well-advised to confide the means of obtaining those results to its librarian; only in this way can the special training which librarians bring to their work be made of maximum use to the community. With the modifications implied in these principles the duties of the committee cover :

1. General oversight of buildings, staff and the work of the various departments of the library.
2. Compilation and revision of public rules and regulations.
3. Regular checking of accounts and expenditures, including those of all officers.
4. Regular meetings on fixed dates.
5. Every member of committee should become acquainted with all the live Acts of Parliament.

57. To cover the work effectively, various sub-committees are necessary, which should be small, but large enough to give each member of the committee an actual interest in some definite department of library work. Usually the sub-com-

mittees appointed include a *Books* sub-committee, which undertakes the examining of all lists of books suggested for purchase; an *Accounts* sub-committee, to which all financial matters are committed; and a *Staff* sub-committee, which is concerned with the appointment, dismissal, remuneration, and training of the employees. Some of the large libraries have a *Buildings* sub-committee to regulate the proper maintenance of library properties; *Lectures and Extension* sub-committee; *Branches* sub-committee; and such other groupings as the local circumstances warrant. In most cases, however, the needs of the authority are met by the three sub-committees first named; and the multiplying of sub-committees is not desirable where there is not enough business to keep them interested and occupied.

58. The procedure of a library committee is simple and does not differ much from that of any other committee. An agenda paper is always prepared, and may be sent with the notice summoning the meeting. This sets out the order of business, which may be somewhat as follows:

1. Minutes of the previous meeting, and matters arising therefrom.
2. Reports of Sub-Committees.
[(a) Accounts, (b) Books, (c) Staff, etc.]
3. Librarian's report.
[i.e., on the work done since the last meeting: issues with comparable figures from the previous year, receipts, gifts, visitors, special happenings, accidents, and any other matters likely to interest the committee.]
4. Special business of this meeting.
[i.e., new projects, deputations, etc.]
5. Requisitions.
[i.e., the librarian here requests authority to order goods, furniture and any other articles or work which are not of merely routine character.]
6. Correspondence, if any.
7. Any other necessary business.

The sub-committees, which usually have simpler agenda, have, where necessary, met previously. Clearly the Accounts sub-committee has regular business to report; and the Books sub-committee must meet frequently unless either the chairman has large powers to authorise book-buying, or, as is the case in modern libraries, this duty is laid upon the staff. Other sub-committees have work requiring as a rule less frequent meetings.

The agenda paper is worked through in the order given, the chairman taking the initiative throughout. It is presumed that the chairman and the librarian have gone through the agenda together before the meeting and are in agreement about the business to be transacted. This allows the librarian to refrain from intervention except when he is asked to advise. Obviously when intervention is called for the advice and information should be in strict accordance with fact. Some librarians take active part in committees, but this is a matter of custom. It is well to remember that the most innocent-looking agenda may give rise to much discussion and careful study of each item beforehand is advisable.

The Minutes should be the briefest record that will convey adequately the results of the meeting. They should contain a list of the members present, the text of resolutions passed, and a precise statement of instructions and decisions. As the committee's findings are those of the whole body it is unusual to give the names of movers and seconders of resolutions. Adjectives and descriptive words are likely to confuse and should be omitted. Usually the minutes are in two parts: the first, sometimes known as the "printed minutes," consists of matters which it is deemed expedient to present to the council, and the second, known as the "written minutes," of the domestic matters which are within the powers delegated to the committee. When the librarian is not clerk the minutes should as a matter of courtesy and commonsense be submitted in draft to the librarian, and they should receive the approval of the chairman before the permanent record is made. Observance of these simple principles makes committee work a pleasant feature of the library service.

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CHAPTER IV

FINANCE, LOANS AND ACCOUNTS

61. Powers and Restrictions.—Public Libraries, as we have shown, are local in origin, and receive their support almost entirely from local rates. A few fortunate ones have an income from legacies, but the only funds beyond the rate-product usually received are the small amounts collected as fines and other petty receipts. The Act of 1919 gave powers to all English and Welsh library authorities to expend on libraries any sum which they deemed to be necessary. By the successive post-war Acts, already enumerated, in Scotland the old 1d. in the £ limit was raised to 3d.; in South Ireland to 3d., which may be increased to 6d. with Government sanction; but in Northern Ireland 1d. was reimposed, except that in urban areas it may be raised to 3d. It need not be assumed that these larger powers have resulted in generous, or in many places even adequate, library expenditure; but the present position is that library committees may now present estimates of their needs to their councils in the same way that other committees do and without reference to “so much rate in the pound” in England and Wales, and in Scotland and Ireland estimates can be made much more in consonance with the needs of libraries than were possible before the Act of 1919 was passed. It can be laid down as a fairly sure principle that while general rates are with advantage kept at a level, the library rate must gradually increase, even apart from the increases in assessment values in most places, for some years to come, owing to the large amount of leeway which has to be made up from a half-century of financial semi-starvation.

62. The Library Rate.—A rate may usefully be defined as a local tax on rental values, and the produce of a rate is judged generally from the amount raised by a levy of 1d. in the £ on the assessment. Thus, if a house is rented at £100, the assessment may be that sum less 5 per cent.; the 1d. rate would therefore be calculated on £95 and would produce accordingly 7s. 11d.¹ In America the rate is calculated on property values.

¹ There is to-day no distinct relation between some of the inflated rents and the assessment. Assessments have not increased as rents have.

Rates for library purposes are raised in Great Britain as part of the general district or consolidated rates as a rule, and the exceptions indicated in previous chapters now occur in so few places that they need not be stressed here. An important point for those countries where the rate limitation makes every pound of importance to the library committee is the manner in which the rate is calculated. It is sometimes argued that no deduction should be made from the amount given to the libraries for empty and non-productive property, but there can be no sound grounds for such an argument other than that the poverty of the library may be such that the authority grants the gross product of the rate out of sympathy. Again, as the rate is collected as part of the council's general rates, no charge should be made for collection. Such considerations have no validity where the rate is unlimited, because in practice it would simply mean that if these deductions or charges were made the library committee would frame its annual estimates to include them.

63. Balances and Deficits.—Unexpended balances are rare where the estimates have originally been framed with care. When they occur, they are usually returned to the common funds of the authority. Similarly, deficits are also met out of the common funds. Thus, balances and deficits are both expunged, and the library starts each year with a clear account. As emergency expenditure can be recovered within a twelve-month as a rule, there is no need to accumulate balances.

64. Making the Estimate.—In making a library estimate it must be remembered that the 1919 Act prescribes that when once an authority has by resolution declared that the library rate shall not exceed so much in the pound, that limit cannot be raised even by the library authority itself for twelve months. Generally, however, the committee will make its estimate with sufficient forethought to meet any ordinary situation. This question of the amount of income necessary exercises all authorities, and the proportions in which money is to be distributed over the various activities have received much study. The safest way in which to estimate the needs of the service is to take the population as a basis; this proves to be more useful than rateable value, or any other factor so far employed, and, indeed, this basis is recommended by implication in *The Public Libraries Report* of 1927. It costs so much yearly to supply a reader with books; and that is a calculation method easily understood. In the United States and in

Canada this method is also favoured, and the former has declared that one-dollar yearly is a reasonable sum, although only certain libraries have yet reached so high a figure. In Canada a half-dollar is probably nearer the average. In this country, only in Hampstead, where 3s. 0d. is raised and in Cardiff where the sum is 2s. 3d., is any approximation made to the Transatlantic ideal. In 1923-24 the average was 1s., but since then much progress has been made. A satisfactory service cannot be produced at less than 1s. 6d. a head. Lately, Duncan Gray has discovered from the study of a number of library reports the costs per head of the several items of library service. His findings have been criticised as being based on existing unsatisfactory averages and R. J. Gordon has made the alternative suggestions which are shown :

	Gray		Gordon	
	s. d.	Per cent.	s. d.	Per cent.
Books	4	17.9	7	23.3
Rebinding	1.6	7.1	2	6.7
Periodicals8	3.6	1	3.3
Salaries	10	44.6	1 0	40.0
Establishment Charges	6	26.8	8	26.7
	1 10.4	100	2 6	100

FIG. 5.—Allocation of expenditure per head of the population.

65. This table may be compared with the “stable averages” which the *Public Libraries Report, 1927*, found then to exist.

ALLOCATION OF LIBRARY INCOME, 1924.

Urban Libraries.

County Libraries.

	Population		All Areas.	
	Over 20,000.	Under 20,000.		
	Per cent.	Per cent.		
Books	15	13	15	47
Binding	7	3	7	3
Newspapers and Periodicals	5	11	5	..
Salaries	37	36	37	31
Wages	9	9	9	..
Other	27	28	27	19
	100	100	..	100

FIG. 6.—Returns from the Public Library Committee Report, 1927.

Calculated on these figures the total cost of the libraries for varying populations will be seen to be :

		25,000		35,000		50,000
Cost at 1/10·4	..	£2,333	..	£3,266	..	£4,666
Cost at 2/6	..	£3,125	..	£4,375	..	£6,250

and so on. Experience shows that a really good service costs at least as much as the first of these two standard figures.

A certain consistency in average expenditures on the various items as was found by Professor Adams in 1915 still persists. (See Fig. 8.)

The costs here considered are those of the libraries of independent towns; county library finance is based on^a a different form of service, and comparisons between urban and county costs, although frequently made, are not useful. The chapter dealing with county libraries will be an appropriate place to consider their finance. The figures, then, already given, and those that follow, are urban figures.

66. The form in which the estimate is presented to the Council may be as shown in Fig. 7, which was the form suggested by Professor W. G. S. Adams in his report to the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, *On Library Provision and Policy*, 1915.

PUBLIC LIBRARY COMMITTEE ESTIMATE, 1931.				
<i>Expenditure.</i>				
Actual 1929.		Estimate 1930.	Actual 1930.	Estimate 1931.
1. £897	Books and Binding . . .	£900	£190	£920
2. £300	Newspapers and Periodicals	£350	£380	£380
3. etc.	Salaries and Wages . . .	etc.	etc.	etc.
4. ..	Rent and Loans
5. ..	Rates and Taxes
6. ..	Maintenance :
7. ..	Lighting
8. ..	Heating
9. ..	Cleaning
10. ..	Balance
<i>Income.</i>				
1. ..	From other sources
2. ..	Amount required from rate

FIG. 7.—Form for Annual Estimates.

67. In submitting his budget for the use of his committee the librarian will analyse the items into general administrative, central, reference, and branch libraries' expenditure, and under each will show salaries as distinct from wages paid for unskilled service; and books will be divided into "new," "replacements," etc.; periodicals into those filed permanently and others; maintenance charges into building expenses, furniture and fittings, stationery, repairs to fabric and furniture, and so on. The Council as a rule does not require so detailed a statement.

68. We must consider in some detail the principal expenditures to which library committees are subject.

69. **Loans.**—The Libraries Acts give fairly full instructions as to loans for public library purposes. In England under the principal Act "every library authority, with the sanction of the Ministry of Health, . . . may borrow money for the purposes of this Act on the security of any fund or rate applicable for those purposes." In parishes the regulations for borrowing prescribed by the "Local Government Act, 1894," are to apply. As a preliminary to borrowing, an inquiry is held locally by a Ministry of Health inspector, who receives evidence as to proposed buildings, sites, amount required, etc., and also hears objections to the proposal. The Ministry print bills announcing the inquiry, and these must be posted and paid for by the library authority. The sanction when received states the amount sanctioned and for what period the money can be borrowed for sites, buildings, furniture or books, as the case may be.

The security for loans is declared by the "Public Health Act, 1875," Section 233, to be the "credit of any fund or all or any rates or rate out of which they are authorized to defray expenses incurred by them in the execution of this Act." This practically means the general rate of a district.

70. The periods for which sums of money for particular purposes may be borrowed are generally as follows:

For sites or lands	60 or 50 years.
„ buildings (including fixtures like counters, screens, wall and standard bookcases, wall news- paper slopes, barriers, etc.) . . .	30 years. ¹
„ books.	10 „
„ furniture (tables, chairs, desks, and movable furniture only) . . .	10 „

¹ A loan for purchasing an existing building will not be sanctioned for a period exceeding twenty or twenty-five years.

CLASSIFIED PERCENTAGES OF LIBRARY EXPENDITURE.

LIBRARIES WITHOUT LOAN CHARGES.															
Income.	Books and Binding.	Periodicals and Newspapers.	Salaries.	Rents and Loans.	Rates and Taxes.	Other Items, including Maintenance of Pre-mises, Light, Heat, &c.	Total.	Income.	Books and Binding.	Periodicals and Newspapers.	Salaries.	Rents and Loans.	Rates and Taxes.	Other Items, including Maintenance of Pre-mises, Light, Heat, &c.	Total.
£	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	£	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
8000 & over	19.06	4.96	37.5	15.46	2.41	20.58	99.97	1000 & over	19.93	6.37	39.22	19.93	2.03	32.43	99.98
4000-8000	18.81	5.31	39.96	12.54	1.81	21.55	99.98	750-1000	25.4	7.95	44.17	25.4	3.16	19.29	99.97
3000-4000	17.97	6.07	41.74	17.42	1.09	15.68	99.97	500-750	20.31	9.98	45.49	20.31	3.86	20.23	99.97
2000-3000	19.53	6.44	39.33	13.5	2.38	18.78	99.96	400-500	18.48	10.07	40.90	18.48	5.81	24.6	99.86
1500-2000	21.09	6.24	37.87	13.13	2.3	19.01	99.64	300-400	15.9	12.31	46.91	15.9	2.9	21.9	99.92
1000-1500	19.07	7.43	37.18	16.47	2.21	17.62	99.98	200-300	17.13	13.25	42.98	17.13	4.00	22.61	99.97
750-1000	17.58	7.81	38.97	10.8	2.22	22.6	99.86	100-200	16.2	15.66	45.1	16.2	2.54	20.47	99.97
500-750	17.55	10.88	36.32	11.81	3.10	20.22	99.88	50-100	20.16	15.82	34.29	20.16	5.68	24.02	99.97
250-500	13.12	10.25	38.0	15.09	4.00	18.61	99.97	Under 50	28.65	21.85	36.46	28.65	2.26	10.75	99.97
100-250	16.31	13.13	33.63	21.31	3.14	12.45	99.97								
Under 100	14.32	16.15	25.84	24.48	2.66	19.52	99.97								

LIBRARIES WITH LOAN CHARGES.															
Income.	Books and Binding.	Periodicals and Newspapers.	Salaries.	Rents and Loans.	Rates and Taxes.	Other Items, including Maintenance of Pre-mises, Light, Heat, &c.	Total.	Income.	Books and Binding.	Periodicals and Newspapers.	Salaries.	Rents and Loans.	Rates and Taxes.	Other Items, including Maintenance of Pre-mises, Light, Heat, &c.	Total.
£	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	£	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
8000 & over	19.06	4.96	37.5	15.46	2.41	20.58	99.97	1000 & over	19.93	6.37	39.22	19.93	2.03	32.43	99.98
4000-8000	18.81	5.31	39.96	12.54	1.81	21.55	99.98	750-1000	25.4	7.95	44.17	25.4	3.16	19.29	99.97
3000-4000	17.97	6.07	41.74	17.42	1.09	15.68	99.97	500-750	20.31	9.98	45.49	20.31	3.86	20.23	99.97
2000-3000	19.53	6.44	39.33	13.5	2.38	18.78	99.96	400-500	18.48	10.07	40.90	18.48	5.81	24.6	99.86
1500-2000	21.09	6.24	37.87	13.13	2.3	19.01	99.64	300-400	15.9	12.31	46.91	15.9	2.9	21.9	99.92
1000-1500	19.07	7.43	37.18	16.47	2.21	17.62	99.98	200-300	17.13	13.25	42.98	17.13	4.00	22.61	99.97
750-1000	17.58	7.81	38.97	10.8	2.22	22.6	99.86	100-200	16.2	15.66	45.1	16.2	2.54	20.47	99.97
500-750	17.55	10.88	36.32	11.81	3.10	20.22	99.88	50-100	20.16	15.82	34.29	20.16	5.68	24.02	99.97
250-500	13.12	10.25	38.0	15.09	4.00	18.61	99.97	Under 50	28.65	21.85	36.46	28.65	2.26	10.75	99.97
100-250	16.31	13.13	33.63	21.31	3.14	12.45	99.97								
Under 100	14.32	16.15	25.84	24.48	2.66	19.52	99.97								

FIG. 8.—Returns compiled from Professor Adams's Report on Library Provision and Policy [Carnegie United Kingdom Trust], Sec. 66.

The money may be borrowed from the Public Works Loan Commissioners, County Councils, Banks, Friendly Societies or private individuals.

71. The methods of repayment vary, and must be a matter for local arrangement, and should follow the practice in vogue with other municipal loans, and are sometimes on the annuity system which has the advantage of distributing the payments uniformly over the whole period, and sometimes are by annual diminishing instalments of principal and interest. In Scotland repayments of principal must be made from a sinking fund which is to be formed from a certain proportion of the rate put aside annually.

The negotiating of a loan and the drawing up of the necessary deeds is usually arranged by the local treasurer or town clerk and there is no further need for the librarian to pursue the matter.

72. In Ireland no power to borrow was given under the principal Act, but the Amendment Act of 1877 gives the power, provided the commissioners of His Majesty's Treasury approve. The Commissioners of Public Works in Ireland may lend, and power is given to mortgage, as security, either the borough fund, town fund, or the library rate itself. In Scotland the local authority may borrow, without any other consent, on mortgage or bond on the security of the library rate, a sum or sums not exceeding the capital sum represented by one-fourth part of the library rate, capitalized at the rate of twenty years' purchase of such sum; that is to say, not more than five times the library rate. A sinking fund must be formed, consisting of an annual sum equal to one-fiftieth part of the money borrowed, which is to be invested and applied to the purpose of extinguishing the debt.

Before leaving the question of loans, it may be well to offer a word of warning against the danger of overborrowing, which has very seriously crippled the work of various libraries.

73. It would appear that public libraries are assessable to rates. It is true that in 1843 was passed "An Act to exempt from County, Borough, Parochial and other Local Rates, Land and Buildings occupied by Scientific or Literary Societies," 6 & 7 Vict., c. 36, under which a few public libraries obtained certificates of exemption from the payment of local rates, from the Registrar of Friendly Societies, as allowed by this Act, but some of these certificates were recognized by the rating authorities, others were ignored, and it was frequently main-

tained that a public library was not a scientific or literary society within the meaning of the Act. The case of *Manchester v. The West Derby Union* in 1905 when the claim to exemption was rejected is cited in the Public Libraries Committee Report, and, as the Report concludes, until a further legal decision is obtained, the liability remains. As for income tax, in 1896 the House of Lords ruled that public libraries were literary societies or institutions for the purposes of the "Income Tax Act of 1842," under which such institutions were granted exemption from the payment of income tax. Although the case, brought by the Corporation of Manchester against the Surveyor of Income Tax for Manchester, did not directly refer to the Act of 1843, the decision that public libraries were literary institutions effected all that was necessary for the purpose of claiming exemption from local rates under the "Literary Societies Act of 1843." A full report of this case and decision is printed in the *Library* for 1896, in the *Times* law reports and elsewhere.

74. An application claiming exemption under the 1843 Act must be addressed to the Registrar of Friendly Societies. With this must be enclosed a copy of the rules and regulations of the library, signed by the chairman and three members of committee, and countersigned by the clerk or librarian. These rules must include the following, or others in similar terms :


1. "The — Public Library is a society established for purposes of literature and science exclusively."

2. "The library is supported in part by a rate levied in accordance with the Public Libraries Acts, and in part by annual voluntary contributions of money and gifts of books and periodicals. The Library Committee shall not make any dividend, gift, division or bonus in money unto or between any of the members."

These two rules are absolutely necessary to a successful application, and, if not already incorporated, should be included by special resolution of the library authority before application is made. Three identical copies of the rules, all signed, must be sent. On these the registrar endorses his certificate, and sends one to the Clerk of the Peace for the district, one to the library authority, and retains one. The form of certificate usually attached is as follows :

It is hereby certified that this society is entitled to the benefit of the Act 6 & 7 Vict., c. 36, intituled "An Act to exempt from County, Borough, Parochial and other Local Rates, Lands and Buildings occupied by Scientific or Literary Societies."

Date.

A circular seal with the text "Seal of Registry of Friendly Societies." inside.

Seal of
Registry of
Friendly
Societies.

The application should show that annual voluntary contributions of money, books and periodicals are received, but there is no direction laid down as to the amount of voluntary contributions which will pass muster. The English registrar accepts donations in kind as annual voluntary contributions ; it is only necessary to value these to make up a respectable sum.

75. Certificates are not granted as a rule in cases where a charge for admission is made. Furthermore, it is doubtful if the exemption from local rates would be allowed by unsympathetic local authorities for occupied portions of library buildings. A caretaker's or librarian's residence would in all probability be separately assessed, even if the certificate were otherwise recognized.

76. The House of Lords' decision already noticed also freed public library buildings from income tax, but it should be distinctly understood that inhabited house duty can be charged for the whole of a building, even if only partly occupied as a residence, when included under one roof, unless it can be shown that the library and residence do not communicate directly with each other.

77. Insurance.—Library buildings and their contents should be insured against fire. To ascertain full insurable value, the cost of buildings at the contract price, including all charges which would have to be incurred again for rebuilding may be taken, but usually some deduction is made for foundations which would rarely be destroyed, as perhaps for boilers and other relatively indestructible objects ; furniture at the contract price ; lending library books at 4s. per volume, and reference library books at 8s. per volume all over. Card catalogues and their cabinets, and sheaf catalogues should be covered adequately ; in some libraries it would cost in materials, highly-qualified labour and time, a large sum to replace the catalogues. £25 per thousand entries is not a high valuation on a card catalogue, including its cabinet, and a sheaf catalogue would be valued at only a little less. An allowance is sometimes made for depreciation, but a full covering value is always safe. The policy will state these various items separately for the purposes of insurance, but will likely charge a uniform percentage on all. 1s. 6d. per cent. is a fair charge in a good office, but insurances can be effected for as low as 1s. 3d. per cent. Library buildings form a safe risk, and, except in a case of temporary premises with bad surroundings, 1s. 6d. per cent. should be regarded as a maximum charge. Some offices

return the premium once in five years or so by way of bonus. Insurance policies should be revised every few years to keep pace with the growth of the library. Paintings, valuable MSS. and rare books must be made the subject of special insurances. The same may be said of temporary exhibitions, especially of loan articles, which ought to be covered by a policy for the period of the show. Adequate fire-fighting appliances should be provided in public library buildings to cope with the first outbreak of fire, and the staff should understand what to do in case of an outbreak ; but it is a good rule to call the fire-brigade, however small the fire.

78. Another insurance that should be provided is against claims for damage or injury to children who use juvenile departments, which may be caused through any defect in the building or its fittings ; and in connexion therewith it should be remembered that children cannot legally be held contributory by their carelessness or misbehaviour to such accidents as would cause injury.

79. Health insurance must be paid by the library committees for all employees of sixteen years of age and more who earn less than £250 a year, and in some cases the employers' proportion of unemployment insurance and of superannuation charges.

80. **Contracts, Agreements, Requisitions.**—Contracts for regular supplies should be renewed annually. The principal items of this kind are: Bookbinding, periodicals and newspapers, printing, stationery, cleaning materials. Sentiment is generally in favour of procuring supplies locally, where possible, and when this can be done without disadvantage to the library it is the convenient course. Tenders can be invited either by public advertisement or on the nomination of members of committee and the librarian. Public advertisement is, perhaps, the fairest way ; afterwards, quality of service and other considerations will decide. Specifications should be prepared and sent out.

81. All specifications and contracts should be carefully preserved. Accepted estimates for occasional work should be filed with reference to the accounts for them. It is important to be able to lay hands on any document or its terms without delay. Unless the standing orders of the library authority provide otherwise, all tenders and estimates should be opened in committee or sub-committee, in meeting duly convened. Envelopes, printed with the address of the library and having the words "Tender for ——" printed boldly in one corner,

should be enclosed with all invitations for estimates to prevent the risk of accidental opening.

82. It must be noted that public library committees and officers are subject to the penal provisions of the "Public Bodies Corrupt Practices Act, 1889," 52 & 53 Vict., c. 69, in the event of bribes or commissions being given or received in connexion with pending contracts or supplies. As this does not seem to be generally known, the essential words of the Act are quoted :

"Every person who corruptly solicits or receives, or agrees to receive, for himself, or for any other person, any gift, loan, fee, reward, or advantage, as an inducement to any member, officer, or servant of a public body, doing or forbearing to do anything in respect of any matter or transaction in which such public body is concerned ; and every person who shall, with the like object, corruptly give, promise, or offer any gift, loan, fee, reward, or advantage to any person, whether for the benefit of that person or of another, shall be guilty of a misdemeanour. Any one convicted of such an offence shall be liable to imprisonment for two years, or to a fine of £500, or to both imprisonment and fine ; and, in addition, be liable to pay to such public body the amount or value of any gift, loan, fee, or reward so received by him ; and be adjudged incapable of holding any public office for seven years, and to forfeit any such office held by him," etc.

The acceptance of free meals, hospitality or other courtesies which traders occasionally offer librarians would probably be excluded by this Act, and in any case it is unwise for any librarian to place himself under the obligation that such acceptance implies.

83. AGREEMENTS for leases, loans, joint use of libraries with adjoining authorities, or between committee and librarian or other persons, should be drawn up by a solicitor. Minor agreements may be drawn up by the library authority, but they should all be stamped with a sixpenny stamp if in connexion with a consideration of £5 and over. The legal limits within which agreements between various kinds of library authorities can be made are duly set forth in the various Public Libraries Acts, and, as these matters seldom arise in the course of ordinary library routine, there is no need further to consider the subject.

84. Suggestions on Management.—It is well to keep a book or to provide forms to enable readers to make suggestions on the management of the library. Sometimes such suggestions take the form of complaints, but it is a useful thing to allow opportunity for the expression of public opinion.

A small locked box to contain these, and lettered on side "Suggestions," may be provided. Readers should be encouraged

in this way to take part in the administration. Occasionally quite useful suggestions on management are received. Immediate attention to them has a definite psychological value. Book suggestions should also be invited as shown later (Section 261).

85. Accounts.—By the principal English Act, Section 20 (1), it is ordained that “separate accounts shall be kept of the receipts and expenditure under this Act of every library authority and its officers, and those accounts shall be audited in like manner and with the like incidents and consequences, in the case of a library authority being an urban authority, and of its officers, as the accounts of the receipts and expenditure of that authority and its officers under the Public Health Acts.” In Ireland the same provisions apply, that is, library accounts are to be kept and audited like those of the local authority, and copies of the accounts are to be sent within one month after auditing to the Lord Lieutenant. In Scotland the accounts are to be kept separately in special books, and are to be audited by “one or more competent auditors.” In all cases the books are to be open to public inspection, and in Scotland abstracts of the accounts are to be inserted in one or more newspapers published or circulated in the district.

86. The form of financial statement accepted by the Ministry of Health is as follows :

FINANCIAL STATEMENT.

RECEIPTS.	EXPENDITURE.
Rates.	Buildings, repairs, maintenance.
Fines and penalties.	Books, periodicals, etc.
Donations and subscriptions.	Salaries and remuneration of officers and assistants.
From parliamentary grants.	Establishment charges not before included.
From other local authorities.	Loans : Principal { Out of invested
From sale of securities in which sinking fund is invested.	repaid { Sinking Fund.
From all other sources, specifying them.	„ Interest. { Otherwise.
Sale of catalogues, etc.	Payments to other local authorities.
etc.	Other expenditure.

87. Audit.—In counties accounts are audited under the Local Government Act, 1888 (Section 71). In county boroughs, unless special arrangements have been made for a Ministry of Health audit, the audit is carried out by local elective auditors and or professional auditors employed by individual councils. Other authorities, including newly constituted boroughs, are

audited by the Ministry of Health under the "District Auditors' Act, 1879." District auditors have power to surcharge expenditures for items which in their opinion ought not to be incurred under the Public Libraries Acts, and it should be remembered that the committee-men who authorize payment are held liable. The powers vested in library authorities are so wide that it is doubtful if those district auditors are not exceeding their authority by objecting, as they have done in some places, to payments for publications, subscriptions to societies, and other items. In cases of surcharge, appeal for relief should be made to the Ministry of Health, when it is a first offence, or when there are good grounds for questioning the decision of the auditor. The cost of auditing accounts is laid down in the "District Auditors' Act, 1879," according to the following scale. The library authority is required to purchase the necessary stamps to cover the amount :

Under 20	=£0	5	£2,500 and under £5,000	= £5	0
£20 and under £50	= 0	10	5,000 „ 10,000	= 10	0
50 „ 100	= 1	0	10,000 „ 20,000	= 15	0
100 „ 500	= 2	0	20,000 „ 50,000	= 20	0
500 „ 1,000	= 3	0	50,000 „ 100,000	= 30	0
1,000 „ 2,500	= 4	0	100,000 and upwards	= 50	0

The charges for auditing by a firm of chartered accountants are generally according to an agreed scale.

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CHAPTER V

THE MATERIAL OF THE ANNUAL REPORT. STATISTICS. WORKING RECORDS. FORM OF THE ANNUAL REPORT

93. Statistical Methods.—It seems desirable to describe here, as being concerned with committee work, the statistical methods used to show the work of the library. Every business concern has a statistical department, in which records are kept and analysed of every transaction of the business, and from these useful deductions are made. Such statistics, with the necessary proviso that the keeping of them should not impede more obvious work, are desirable for libraries, and although they are necessarily of a quantitative rather than qualitative character, they are nevertheless of value as showing the use made of the several departments and of the various classes of the stock. Statistics usually kept include: the stock; accessions; the issue of books and material in each department according to their classes; the number of readers' tickets in force; and the attendances at the reading rooms. Sometimes records are kept of the occupations and ages of readers, and the wards from which they are drawn. At least one library keeps a record of the use made of it by every house!

94. The use of comparative statistics is always of doubtful value, but is especially so when different uses of the same terms occur. Circulation figures, in England called "issues," are of variable value, and can only be judged with a knowledge of the methods of issue employed, the length of the time allowed for reading, the number of books a reader may take at one borrowing, and the way in which a work in several volumes is counted. Again, the infliction of penalties for undue detention of books, whether in fines or otherwise, has an effect, and where the fines are 1d. a day the issues are likely to be larger, because the exchange of books is more rapid, than where they are 1d. a week. Again, in some libraries it is usual to record the number of borrowers continuously, only counting off the lapsed tickets, while in others only those borrowers who actually use the libraries within the year are counted. The

standard method of presenting results is that prescribed by the Library Association as explained below (Section 103) and so far as public libraries are concerned that should always be used.

95. A satisfactory record of the relative circulation of books can be made only of a classified stock. Certainly comparisons cannot be fairly made when, to take only one simple example, one librarian classes his periodicals as science, useful arts, etc., and another groups his together as miscellaneous. Then, some librarians, rightly we think, separate Juvenile Fiction issues from Adult Fiction issues ; and, indeed, divergences and anomalies are frequent and are confusing.

Suggested rulings for Issue Record books, for lending and reference libraries respectively, are given (Fig. 9). The record book should have about thirty-five horizontal lines to the page, exclusive of the headings, to allow one line for each day and leave room for adding up the columns ; and have as many vertical columns as there are classes of books in the stock. The simplest form has the dates of a standard month 1-31 printed down the left-hand column, and the Sundays-numbers can be crossed out and the line used for weekly totals. The issues of each year should be kept together in a series ; and a page or more, as required, should be left at the end of each year, and devoted to the monthly summary totals. If this is done regularly the figures for the annual or other reports are easily obtained. The accessions book, if kept entered, added and classified up to date, will give similar information about additions to and withdrawals from stock.

96. It is usual to count volumes separately. Thus a work in five volumes is counted as 5 in the record. Illustrations, pamphlets, broadsides and other material in separate form are usually counted in the same way, but are sometimes indicated as being of this separate character in separate columns. There are minor problems in counting which interest librarians, and upon which opinion is divided. Thus, when a series of prints are formed into a public exhibition, it is sometimes the practice to count each print as having been issued once. They may, however, have been examined by hundreds of people during the exhibition, and sometimes an allowance is made for that fact. Again, the consultation of a magazine in the reading rooms is usually not counted ; but the same magazine when bound is counted if issued from the shelves in the reference library. Directories, time-tables, and similar quick-reference works are often omitted from the statistics. There seems no

time if the recording of statistics means the placing of barriers between books and readers, it is a safe principle to prefer fewer statistics and more accessibility.

97. The rulings given in Fig. 9 are those commonly used in public libraries, but while such records give a quantitative idea of the work done, they are not useful beyond that to the librarian, who really wants a qualitative record. To quote a recent book, "If I read . . . that 80 books on Fine Arts were issued last year and only 60 have been issued this, I receive no practical information. When I read, however, that last year 50 books on painting were read and 10 on photography, and this year 60 books on painting and 4 on photography, I receive information that suggests further inquiry." To produce the detailed information an issue-record book ruled to show the principal divisions and sub-divisions of the classification is used. A ruling of this record, with the daily issue sheet upon which it is built up, will be found in Berwick Sayers's *Revision of the Stock of a Public Library*, 1929; and in this connection an article of unusual character entitled *A Plea for an Analytical Study of the Reading Habit*,¹ by Ernest A. Savage, should be studied.

98. The record of the number of readers should be confined to those whose tickets are "live" ones. This does not mean necessarily that tickets not in active use at the time statistics are compiled should be regarded as "dead." A borrower may leave his ticket in abeyance for several months with the intention of using it later. It does mean that only those tickets should be counted which are valid at the time. Except in a few libraries where a ticket is valid, without renewal, indefinitely, validity ranges from one to three or some other stated number of years in different libraries, and the figures as a rule will be only approximately sound. If, however, all valid tickets are included, and if the number of tickets issued within the year covered by the annual report is also indicated, the record will be a serviceable account of the use made in relation to the population of the district served. It is usual to show the number of actual borrowers divided into burgesses and non-burgesses; of non-resident borrowers (employees, scholars, etc.); and of supplementary tickets (non-fiction, teachers', illustration, music, etc.) held by them.

99. Where it is thought necessary to keep records of the occupation of readers, a blank line for the name of the occupa-

¹ *Library Association Record*, v. 20, New Series, pp. 210-25, 1924.

tion is included on the application voucher (see Section 418) from which the records are made.

100. It is not usual to keep formal statistics of the number of visitors to newspaper and periodical rooms ; the attendances are either not recorded or are estimated. Sometimes a daily count is made at monthly or other intervals and the yearly attendance is gauged from this ; but such figures have no great value. A series of visits to the rooms will assure any librarian or member of committee of the amount of use that is made of them equally well.

101. Brief paragraphs, presenting the record of work weekly or monthly, and the number of borrowers, are sometimes sent to the local newspapers. This is a good plan, and the matter is more acceptable if presented in literary rather than in merely tabular form. At each meeting of the library committee a fairly complete statistical record of the work since the last meeting is presented, in which the factors we have discussed, together with the percentage of fiction issued, and comparisons with the corresponding weeks or months of the previous year are made. The committee is thus kept closely acquainted with the results of its work.

102. The Annual Report.—The annual report of the library committee is the summary and crown of its labours, and is often the most direct means of contact between the committee and the community. Librarians both here and in America now devote much thought to it ; and the reports of several British libraries are models. They have good paper, the typography, margins and covers are chosen with meticulous care, and good illustrations are now a feature. A report should be a complete history of the operations of the library in all its departments ; it should be literary in form and to be readable is almost as desirable a quality as accuracy. The necessary formal statistics indicated below, if they are given, should be relegated to a technical appendix, and the narrative should be clear of them. Some libraries find the Library Association summary quite enough from the statistical point of view ; for it is recognized that elaborate tables of issues, stock, etc., of central and branch libraries have a use for the librarian and may be kept at the libraries, but their publication is of interest to few other people. In the narrative comparisons with other libraries by name should be avoided. Illustrations, as we have said, and occasional diagrams rendering in graphic form the statistical results of work, are not necessarily superfluous, and

may brighten the report considerably. The information which a library report ought to convey may be indicated briefly as follows :

Title-page.

List of members of committee and library staff.

Narrative report.

[This is the most interesting feature from the public point of view. It is usually a review of the year founded upon the statistics, etc., in the appendix, and is properly presented as if written by the committee and signed by the chairman. Frequently, however, it takes the form of a report written by the librarian to the committee, to be adopted as the committee's report. Each method has advantages. The committee can appeal to the council upon any part of its policy with greater authority than the librarian. On the other hand, the librarian can express views of the work and needs of the library from his own standpoint. The character of the document, however, would seem to require that a report should be the committee's. Sometimes, as usually in America, the question is solved by having a brief report from the committee, followed by a longer one from the librarian.]

Appendix of documents :—The following forms may be used conveniently to present the statistical record :

STOCK

	Central.		Branches.		Total.		Grand Total.	
Class.	Reference.	Lending.	Reference.	Lending.	Reference.	Lending.	Report Last Year.	Year.
0	000	000	000	000	000	000	0000	0000
1								
2								
3								
etc.								
Total								

Number of volumes added during the year, with proportions purchased and donated. Grand total purchased..... Do. received by gift.....
 Number of volumes worn-out and withdrawn. Other particulars in brief paragraph form.

ISSUES

	Central.		Branches.		Total.		Grand Total.	
Class.	Reference.	Lending.	Reference.	Lending.	Reference.	Lending.	Report Last Year.	Year.
0								
1								
2								
3								
etc.								
Total								
Averages								

Columns for juvenile and other departments, if they exist, must, of course, be included.

BORROWERS

Total number report year and last year. Number holding extra or students' tickets.

READING ROOMS

Attendances at newsrooms, magazine rooms, etc.

List of donations.

Lists of periodicals and annuals (only if no other means of revising printed list is available).

Financial statement. (*See* Section 86.)

Memoranda relating to district, showing population, area, valuation, date when Acts adopted, date of opening building, other leading facts.

103. Library Association Summary.—The appendix outlined above may be reduced considerably by substituting for most of the items a summary in the form recommended by the Library Association. The financial statement, however, should always be given in full, even by libraries the accounts of which are kept by the municipal treasurer or accountant. It is clearly impossible to gauge the character of any library's work if the distribution of expenditure in performing it is not shown. The summary recommended by the Library Association resembles a summary used in American library reports, and is the outcome of a suggestion made to a meeting of the North Central Library Association in 1916 by Mr. E. L. Hetherington, then Secretary of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. Its purpose is not only to present the statistics of libraries in a succinct and simple manner, but by its general adoption to secure a uniform record from all libraries by which satisfactory comparisons may be made. No library report should appear without this summary, even if the librarian chooses to retain his more elaborate tables; and, in view of its utility and the proposed generalness of its use, we append it in full with the Library Association's explanatory notes.

GENERAL STATISTICS :

- (i) Population as at last Census.
- (ii) Amount of rate in the pound.
- (iii) Cost of Library Service per inhabitant.
- (iv) Total Cost of Library per inhabitant.
- (v) Number of Separate Establishments.
- (vi) Number of Staff—Librarians and Assistants.
 - (a) Whole Time—Male.
 - (b) Whole Time—Female.
 - (c) Part Time—Male.
 - (d) Part Time—Female.
 - (e) Total—Male—Female.

Stocks.

	<i>Lending.</i>	<i>Reference.</i>
(i) Number of volumes at beginning of year		
(ii) Volumes withdrawn during year		
(iii) Additions during year		
(iv) Total volumes at end of year		
(v) Number of replacements during year		
(vi) Volumes per head of population according to last census		

Issues.

	<i>Total</i>	<i>Daily Average.</i>
(i) Lending Library Issues		
(ii) Children's Reading Room Issues		
(iii) Reference Library Recorded Issues		
(iv) Reference Library Open Shelves (estimated)		
(v) Issues from Lending Library (see (i) above) per head of population according to last census		

Borrowers.

- (i) Percentage of Borrowers to population.
- (ii) Number of Supplementary Readers' Tickets held.
- (iii) Total Borrowers' Tickets in use.

INSTRUCTIONS TO BE STUDIED IN PREPARATION OF THE FIGURES
DETAILED ABOVE

General.

1. Asterisks with relative footnotes should be placed against any figure which includes abnormalities; for example, if any item of the expenditure includes certain special or non-recurring charges, the amount of that expenditure should be detailed in a footnote with an explanation of the item.

General Statistics.

2. Head (iii) should express in pence the cost of the total library service—per inhabitant according to last census.

3. Similarly head (iv) should express the cost of the total library expenditure per inhabitant.

4. Head (v) asks for the number of separate establishments. The figure should include the central library, but if delivery stations are also included the number of such subsidiary establishments should be stated in a footnote.

Income.

5. Head (i) should be confined solely to the income from the library rate.

6. Head (ii) should include income from all other sources, whether from interest on investments, rents, sales of catalogues, fines or special subscriptions or donations.

Expenditure.

7. Under head (iv) should be included only the cost of periodicals not permanently retained. In cases of periodicals which are subsequently bound and added to the permanent library stocks, their cost should be included under head (i) books and head (ii) binding.

8. Care should be taken that head (vii) should be confined to the salary payments made to the library staff proper. All wages paid to caretakers, cleaners, messengers and the like, should be included under head (xii).

9. It will be observed that there is no separate heading for "miscellaneous" or "other items." It is desired that all items of expenditure should be allocated to the headings detailed above.

Stocks.

10. It is recognized that the word *book* or *volume* has no definite technical meaning, and is usually an indeterminate expression useful for popular purposes.

It may therefore be useful to make the following definitions for the guidance of the Libraries :—

Volumes mean books as they stand on the shelves.

Pieces mean separate works or parts (each usually having a separate title-page to itself, as with pamphlets, parts of periodicals, and the like).

Papers mean lesser items, usually with less than 5 pages, as broadsides, cards, fly-sheets.

Items mean volumes, pieces and papers.

Works mean whole literary productions whether in several volumes or only one piece.

Thus : Ten pamphlets bound together, with five broadsides at end, are one volume, ten works or pieces, fifteen items. A dictionary in twenty volumes would count as twenty volumes, pieces and items, but one work, and in a sense one book.

Having regard to these definitions care should be taken, in recording the number of volumes in a library, to reckon ten pamphlets or parts as the equivalent of a single volume.

Issues.

11. Head (iii) should give the issues from the reference library actually recorded.

12. Head (iv) should give the estimated use made of the books from the open shelves of the reference library.

13. Sunday use of libraries should be separately recorded.

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For articles, see Cannons, K 55, *Library Statistics*, and *Library Literature*, p. 353. A study of the general principles of statistics is desirable. A good work is C. H. Bayliss's *Course in Business Statistics* (1935, Pitman), which is elementary. A specialized use of statistical method of great interest is shown in *What People Want to Read About: a study of group interests and a survey of the problems of adult reading*, by Douglas Waples and Ralph W. Tyler, 1931. Chicago.

105. Annual Report :

Bostwick, A. E. *Administration of a Public Library*. In *A.L.A. Man. of Lib. Econ.* Chapter xii, 1928.

For articles, see Cannons, K 56, *Annual Report*, and *Library Literature*, p. 307.

The *Annual Reports of Libraries* should be studied; among many good ones those of Bristol, which are admirably printed; Croydon, Dagenham, Hendon, Lincoln, Manchester and Sheffield, exhibit various types of urban record, and of counties, those of Derbyshire and Kent. Those of Grand Rapids, New York, and Toronto are representative of the remarkable series from the other side of the Atlantic.

DIVISION II

STAFF

CHAPTER VI

GENERAL QUESTIONS. THE LIBRARIAN

106. General.—Librarianship is a profession ; its entrants must receive a complete and special training. It required years of effort to obtain this recognition for the librarian, and for obvious reasons. It is easily imagined, even by educated men who are uninformed on this point, that any cultivated lover of books ought to make a good librarian. On the occasions, fortunately rare ones, when amateurs are placed in the librarian's office, it is difficult for those who do not know to detect how far the library service thus conducted may fall below its potentialities. A committee, then, fails signally in its duty if it does not recognize that any man occupying a public technical position shall be a technical man. Moreover, as the subsequent pages will demonstrate, there have been available for many years past numbers of men and women who have undergone the required training, and only these should be considered eligible for library posts.

A normal library staff nowadays may be divided into professional, clerical and artisan grades, but these divisions can exist only in libraries of some size. There still exist libraries where the librarian, sometimes with the help of a caretaker, is the whole of the staff. The librarian and his trained assistants form the professional staff ; they are men and women of the same sort of basic education and training, and the difference between the chief librarian and his assistants is one of responsibility and the authority which this implies. Clerical assistants are typists, and some libraries have clerks who do such work as registration, the mechanical accession processes and other tasks which require accuracy and intelligence but certainly not a university education. A few libraries, fortunately they become fewer, employ elementary schoolboys as evening

shelving assistants, and thus create another dead-end occupation. Artisans are book-binders, in a few cases printers, and attendants, while the largest libraries have engineers, motor-drivers, lift-attendants and gardeners. In this MANUAL we deal with the professional grade only to any extent; the conditions of work of the others are, in general, those customarily recognized by their various occupations. For convenience this chapter is devoted to the librarian, but it must be understood that the training indicated for him is that also of his assistants.

107. The appointment of a librarian should be the first step taken by a committee. Errors, often resulting in great subsequent expense, have been made in the past through the mistaken economy of proceeding with buildings, methods and book-selection before such appointment. These matters are the work of the librarian and not of the committee; and much more than the little amount that may be saved from the salary of the librarian will probably be lost because of the adoption of poor plans; amateur experiments are usually expensive. If, at the beginning of its career, a library committee is unable to engage a qualified librarian which, in fact, must rarely be the case, application should be made to the Library Association for the nomination of a professional adviser.

108. Qualifications.—The Public Libraries Committee Report affirms that a liberal education and technical training are essential, and lays particular stress on culture, as, it further affirms, “any man or woman with a good general education can, if the necessary opportunity be given, acquire a knowledge of library technique.” This is somewhat misleading as it may encourage the view that technical training is of mere secondary value and that any person who possesses a university degree may become a competent librarian without serious effort. Experience at present does not support this view entirely, as few or none of the original builders of the public library profession in this country are examples of the theory. Primarily the librarian of a large public library is an administrator. He cannot, of course, be less valuable for being a competent scholar; indeed, he must be that and nearly always is; and it is certainly advantageous that he should possess university qualifications; but no man should ever receive a chief post whose culture is not supported by sound library experience.

109. Experience, then, naturally depends for its value upon its character, and long years in inefficiently-managed libraries

will not suffice for modern needs. Owing to the wide difference between the methods of the past and the more scientific methods of to-day, it is necessary to judge the experience of any librarian by the school in which he has been trained. This does not mean that a library which has been in existence thirty years or more is operated by obsolete methods; most of the larger libraries, indeed, have kept pace with, and have helped to originate, the modern methods, which are to be preferred. At the same time the practice of appointing librarians from larger libraries in preference to those from smaller may be mistaken. A small library may afford its staff opportunities for a more comprehensive training than a large one, but it may not be so extensive in detail. In short, the *size* of the library in which a man is trained is no index to the character of its service, and this character is the main factor in considering experience.

110. A committee is safe in limiting its selection of candidates to fellows and associates of the Library Association, and, or, diplomates of the University of London School of Librarianship as these *ipso facto* have received the training indicated, and should then consider the quality and length of their experience. We give in Sections 141-148 some account of the compass and activities of the Library Association, and commend what is there written to the consideration of library committees. Here it may be said that a fellow by diploma is a librarian who has received a minimum education of matriculation or equivalent standard, has had at least three years' training in a library recognized by the Association, has passed satisfactory examinations in all of the following subjects: literary history, bibliography, classification, cataloguing, library organization and library routine; and has in addition shown a knowledge of at least two languages as well as his own. Honours diploma-holders, in addition, have produced an acceptable written thesis showing independent research upon some department of librarianship. The diploma is a considerable attainment. Associates have completed the intermediate stage of the examination and have also approved experience. Diplomates of the University of London School of Librarianship have pursued a course in a syllabus almost identical with that of the Library Association. A necessarily decreasing number of librarians hold the Fellowship from the fact that they held office as principals prior to 1915, and a smaller number have been elected because of their high academic attainments and the importance of the libraries they command; but few of

these are now likely to be candidates for appointments. Other factors may apply in individual cases, but there are few librarians or assistants of character and ability who are not either members or certificate-holders of the Association.

111. With due allowance for the size and means of the library, and the salary to be offered to the librarian, the following list of qualifications may serve as a guide to a committee in the interviewing of candidates. A literary and technical education is assumed.

LIBRARIAN'S QUALIFICATIONS

1. Training for at least three years in a library which is classified according to some recognized bibliographical scheme [Decimal, Expansive, Library of Congress, Subject or other].

2. A wide knowledge of English and Foreign Bibliography and Literature.

3. A knowledge of business routine, including accounts.

4. Practical acquaintance with the leading systems of book cataloguing and classification.

5. Experience in staff management.

6. Practical knowledge of modern systems of library working, book-binding, book-buying, charging and maintenance.

7. Knowledge of modern periodical literature, and the management of newsrooms.

8. The ability to make a useful public speech, tact, courtesy, and, in short, good "personality."

112. Advertisements and Application Forms for Appointments.—Advertisements for librarians are usually inserted in one or all of the following: *The Library Association Record*, *The Times*, *The New Statesman*, *The Spectator* and *The Municipal Journal*. A useful form of announcement may be subjoined:

LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARY

APPOINTMENT OF CHIEF LIBRARIAN

A Chief Librarian is required for the Liberton Public Library. Candidates must be Fellows or Associates of the Library Association or hold the Librarianship diploma of the University of London, and have had at least years¹ training in a library approved by the Library Association. Salary to commence, £. . . ., rising by annual increments of £. . . . to a maximum of £. . . . The application, which should be accompanied by three recent testimonials, is to be made on

¹ Three years is a minimum.

a special form which may be obtained from the undersigned. All applications should reach the undersigned not later than [*allow three weeks*]. All canvassing will disqualify.

A. B. C.,

Town Clerk, or Clerk to the Committee.

The practice of requiring candidates to apply on a special form is fairly general. It gives uniformity in the information supplied, and in emphasizing the particulars considered to be the most important. For important positions the method is not so advantageous, as valuable conclusions may be drawn from the *manner* in which candidates present their applications. The following draft form may be suggestive to committees :

LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARY COMMITTEE

[Address.]

APPLICATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

The candidate is particularly requested to answer every question in full, and return to A. B. C. [Address], by 12 o'clock on [date to be named], marked on outside of envelope, "Librarianship."

1. Full name.
2. Address.
3. Age next birthday.
4. Married or single.
5. Number of family if married.
6. Is your health good ?
7. Have you any physical defect (deafness, lameness, etc.) ?
8. Present occupation.
9. Length of service in present occupation.
10. Former occupations, if any.
11. What has been the nature of your professional training ?
12. Are you a Fellow or Member of the Library Association ? Do you hold a librarianship diploma ?
13. What *practical* experience have you had of :
 1. Library planning ?
 2. Library accounts ?
 3. Management of staff ?
 4. Modern library management ?
 5. Classification ?
 6. Cataloguing ?
 7. Lending library work ?
 8. Reference library work ?
14. Do you possess any degrees or certificates of an educational kind ?
15. Have you made a special study of any particular subject ?

17. Have you originated any library device, or published books or articles on practical phases of library work ?
18. When could you enter upon duty if appointed ?
19. Add here any further relevant particulars [*leave large space*].

Interviews of selected candidates are, of course, based on the material in the preceding paragraphs. Given the qualifications, it is the personality of the applicants that usually decides the issue. As application forms do not always bring out the best, the practice adopted by some committees of visiting before the interviews the libraries from which the selected candidates come has much to commend it; and at the interview the candidate should be asked to express in his own way why he has applied and in what manner he expects to serve.

It may be added that the British Museum, the older universities, and similar libraries, often appoint graduates with specialist qualifications "in the assurance that they will be able to acquire in the library itself the required technical training,"¹ but some of these now take candidates from the Library School, and since men and women with good degrees now take the University Librarianship Diploma, service in such libraries should be open to them.

113. Salaries.—Owing to the former limitation of the library rate and the still general underestimate of the librarian's utility, salaries in municipal libraries are not liberal, are indeed inadequate. In the state libraries the salaries range higher, and in a few senior posts in the larger university libraries, but they are not high in comparison with those paid in many other professions calling for equivalent ability and training.

The careful analysis of the income, population and work of the principal libraries made by the Public Libraries Committee showed that in 1923-24 the best salaries ranged from £350 for a town with a population of 20,000 to £1,100 for the largest population anywhere, while in the counties the highest salary was £480.

These figures have been improved upon in recent years. The *Librarianship* pamphlet, issued by the Ministry of Labour, 1935, says: "The salaries of Principal Librarians range from £400 a year to £1,000 and over." Even that is not precise. The following table (Fig. 10) shows an attempt at a scale of salaries in which part agreement was reached by the Library Association and the National Association of Local Government

¹ *Public Libraries Report*, p. 80.

Fig. 10.—SUGGESTED SCALE OF SALARIES IN MUNICIPAL LIBRARIES

Drawn up by the Library Association in conjunction with the National Association of Local Government Officers ("N.A.L.G.O.")

Scale		Population of or under (whichever may be higher)	Rateable value or under (whichever may be higher)
A.	Librarian (Grade D of N.A.L.G.O.)	35,000	£175,000
B.	Librarian (Grade E of N.A.L.G.O.)	50,000	£250,000
C.	Librarian (Grade E of N.A.L.G.O.)	100,000	£500,000
D.	Sub-Librarian 60 per cent. of Chief	150,000	£750,000
E.	Librarian	200,000	£1,000,000
F.	Sub-Librarian 60 per cent. of Chief	300,000	£1,500,000
G.	Sub-Librarian 60 per cent. of Chief	400,000	£2,000,000
H.	Sub-Librarian 60 per cent. of Chief	500,000	£2,500,000
I.	Sub-Librarian 60 per cent. of Chief	600,000	£3,000,000
J.	Deputy Librarian 80 per cent. of Chief Principal Sub-Librarian (Grade E of N.A.L.G.O.)	over 600,000	over £3,000,000
K.	Deputy Librarian Principal Sub-Librarian Deputy Librarian Principal Sub-Librarian	800,000	£4,000,000

NOTES.—A. No one to be placed through the operation of the scale in a worse position than that which he at present occupies.
B. Official residents and emoluments (rents, rates, light, fuel, and water) to be taken as equal to 20 per cent. in deduction from the total remuneration.

C. The scale for sub-librarians to apply to those in charge of Branch Libraries.

D. Scales in Grades A, B, C, D, and E as put forward by N.A.L.G.O. and accepted by the National Whitley Council to apply to below the rank of sub-librarian.

Officers. The scale is included here only for reference, as no scale has any finality. The Carnegie Trustees advocated the meagre minimum salary of £300 for a county librarian and, although several counties, as is usual in such cases, considered the minimum to be also the maximum, in several counties the figure has been greatly exceeded.

The wise authority will pay the highest salary that it can, remembering that the librarian ranks with its other heads of departments, and that economy and efficiency dictate a policy which will attract the best candidates. In America, it may be noted, salaries are about 50 per cent. greater than those in the British Isles, and are sometimes much more.

114. The only other point of importance arising out of the question of librarians' salaries is that of providing a residence on the library premises. This policy has been adopted in London more than anywhere else. It affects the question of salary, as sometimes a deduction is made for the residence from the salary. This may be based on the value of that residence, without consideration of the fact that the house is worth to the librarian only what he would pay for rent if he lived elsewhere. Any allowance or deduction should of course be subject to this consideration. In small libraries it is not advisable to incur additional cost in the erection of buildings to provide a residence for the librarian in order to save on his salary; and in others there is little to be gained by complicating a library building with such an excrescence as a residence. If houses are provided at all, they should be mainly used by caretakers who have to get up early, and there is a decided convenience in having an officer of this description always at hand. If possible, residences should be erected as far away from public reading-rooms as they can be, the occupation of rooms over newsrooms, etc., having been proved to be unhealthy in many cases. The accommodation provided for a caretaker usually consists of a sitting-room or large kitchen, parlour, two bedrooms, and the usual offices. In some London libraries very liberal provision has been made for librarians living on the premises, the accommodation consisting of three large living-rooms, four or five bedrooms, kitchen, scullery, bathroom and other offices.

115. **Superannuation.**—There is no general compulsory law at present under which public librarians can retire on a pension after a certain age has been reached. The Local Government Officers' Superannuation Act, 1922, has been adopted in many towns, however, and no doubt will at some

later time become a compulsory enactment.¹ This is a contributory scheme, involving a 5 per cent. payment each on the part of librarian and authority, and permits retirement at age 60 or 65 with corresponding pension payments. A few towns have local Acts arrangements for the superannuation of their officers. There is no uniform method for the superannuation of other librarians. State, university and other librarians come under the special pension arrangements of their authorities.

116. Conditions of Librarians' Appointment.—There are several points requiring notice in connection with the conditions upon which librarians are appointed. In some cases these are set out in a formal agreement, which specifies the principal obligations, terms and duration of the appointment.

1. In large libraries it is usual to stipulate that the librarian must devote the whole of his or her TIME to the duties of the office. This simply means that no other office can be held concurrently, but particularly a paid office. A librarian's private time can be devoted to any recreation he pleases, so long as it does not make him less fit for his public duty. Official time occupied in any work which has for its object improvement in professional knowledge should be allowed within reasonable limits. Attendances at meetings called for professional purposes, or visits to other places for the purpose of acquiring professional knowledge, would, we take it, be considered quite legitimate. Where a certain number of hours daily or weekly has been fixed, the question of the disposal of a librarian's leisure time will not arise.
2. Notice of intention to DETERMINE AN APPOINTMENT might be stipulated for in an agreement. The usual practice is one month's notice on either side.
3. A public librarian who handles public money should be required to obtain security from a recognized guarantee office. The amount insured against will generally be fully covered by a sum equal to 10 per cent. of the annual income of the library. Premiums for municipal officers average about 5s. per cent., and the library authority should make the annual payments to keep the policy alive.
4. The VACATION allowed to librarians varies with the conditions of each place. In some cases six weeks are allowed, irrespective of the time occupied by conferences or other annual meetings. Usually four weeks are given. As a rule, however, this matter in the local government service is ruled by the staff scheme in force in the individual town or county.
5. Practice differs as regards the sending of delegates to conferences of

¹The King's Speech to the Commons (3 November, 1936) promised "measures . . . to make further provision for the superannuation of local government officers."

library associations. It is usual to send the librarian, who is sometimes accompanied by the chairman and other members of committee, but the legal position is a little indefinite as to the payment of expenses. The Ministry of Health has of late usually authorized the expenses of two representatives.

Every library which desires to keep abreast with modern ideas in library work should send its librarian to approved conferences of the Library Association. All public libraries should join the Library Association as institution members, and their librarian will naturally be a member in his own right. The personal exchange of ideas at the conferences is so valuable that every librarian should be able to be allowed to have it, and members of committee also greatly benefit by attendance. The expenses fee is one of the most profitable investments a library committee can make.

117. Duties of the Librarian.—The duties of a librarian practically cover every section of this **MANUAL**, and it is therefore needless to go over the ground here. The following summary is applicable to the average library, but it must be adjusted considerably in large libraries, where the chief librarian is mainly an administrator. Such large libraries have special departmental experts, and it is clear that over many of these items the chief librarian can exercise only a general supervision. Where there are large trained staffs he should avoid details and concern himself with the general direction of all departments; otherwise he will become immersed impossibly in minutiae to the great detriment of the library service as a whole :

1. He must superintend and prepare all the business for the library committee, prepare agendas, check accounts, compile lists of books, and prepare reports.
2. He must attend all committee meetings, and such of the local authority meetings as may be fixed.
3. He must prepare all specifications for contracts, and bring forward in plenty of time all business which arises regularly, either monthly, quarterly or annually.
4. He should sign all orders and be responsible for all correspondence connected with the library. He should keep copies of all orders and important letters, as well as copies of any specifications or other documents.
5. He must fix the time, duties and daily work of the staff, and superintend and check their attendance and work in every department.
6. He must see that order is maintained among readers throughout the main building and branches, and that the rules are enforced within reason, and that the opening and closing of the library are done punctually.

7. He must carefully supervise the selection of books and periodicals for addition to the library, and examine all necessary lists, catalogues and reviews for that purpose.
8. He should check all cataloguing and classification work.
9. He should be prepared when called upon to aid readers, as far as possible, in any line of research, and should be easily accessible at all times when on duty.

The librarian should appear, as a matter of course, with other heads of departments at all civic functions.

118. A paragraph in the Public Libraries Committee Report ¹ appears to be of such value that we reprint it here. It applies to all professional library workers, chief and assistant: "A word may perhaps be added with regard to a branch of library training which does not at present figure in any curriculum known to us, but which nevertheless is not without real importance. We refer to instruction in what may be called library ethics, or the minor morals of librarianship. The librarian is, by the nature of his duties, brought into continual contact with members of the general public. The efficiency of his control, and the value of his services as guide and adviser, depend very much on his personality and manners. Courtesy, patience, tact, good temper, are essential for the librarian in all grades of the service. Willingness to give help, patience in the face of stupidity, control of temper under provocation, must be inculcated in every assistant and attendant in a library; while the higher ranks need to cultivate a study of human nature which may almost claim the dignity of a special branch of psychology. The human factor is of such supreme importance in library administration that schools of librarianship and courses of instruction may well be asked to devote a portion of their attention to giving advice on this topic."

119. **Etiquette.**—There is incumbent on every profession an etiquette as between its members. A few, perhaps obvious, points should be indicated. It is not permissible to discuss adversely the work of any member with a layman. It is not permissible to make comparisons, especially in public reports, between the work of one's own library and that of another to the detriment of the other. It is not permissible to accept personal gifts or favours from any trader who supplies goods to the library. When a librarian, at the request of a non-librarian member of a community other than his own, furnishes

¹ P. 88.

information concerning his library which may be used in connection with the library of that community, he is bound in courtesy to send a copy of the information to the librarian who may be affected. Should a librarian issue a questionnaire he should send a copy of its results to the librarians whom he has asked to answer it.

A librarian is the servant, in a position of trust, of his authority; he should carry out its instructions to the best of his powers, even when he disagrees with them. He has a right to expect loyalty from his staff, and he is bound to give loyalty and encouragement for good work and complete impartiality in return. The testimonials he gives should be true in fact and in spirit. These points the professional librarian accepts as commonplaces.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

See end of Chapter VIII.

CHAPTER VII

ASSISTANTS

120. General.—The organization of the library staff under the chief librarian is naturally governed by the number of assistants and the size of the system they work. Most libraries have a second qualified librarian who is variously called Deputy Chief Librarian, Deputy Librarian, Chief Assistant Librarian, or, more rarely, Vice-Librarian. There is still considerable confusion in the nomenclature of library offices, and it would be well if a uniform system were adopted. Large libraries have, in addition, a hierarchy of librarians, as follows : 1. A Superintendent or Inspector of Branches, where there are several libraries in the system, as at Birmingham, Glasgow, and Manchester ; 2. Librarians-in-Charge of the several departments in the main or central library ; 3. Branch Librarians ; 4. Senior assistants ; 5. Junior assistants. The qualifications of Deputy, Superintendent of Branches, Librarians-in-Charge and Branch Librarians should be complete, and to these positions only trained men should be appointed. It is a sound plan to throw open all the higher appointments in libraries to competition, in which competition, of course, any member of the existing staff should be allowed, without prejudice, to compete.

121. Deputy-Librarian. — Appointments to any senior position should be subject to the same principles, and to conditions similar to those governing the appointment of chief librarians. In small libraries the means at the disposal of the committee do not always permit of a salary sufficient to attract a fellow of the Library Association, or a man similarly qualified, but no assistant who is inexperienced or is without a professional diploma should ever be appointed to the important position of deputy-librarian. The duties of the deputy-librarian comprise the whole administration of the library system under the chief librarian, the general supervision of every department, and the direction of the duties of the whole staff. He becomes acting-chief librarian in every absence of his principal, and should be

qualified to assume this position both by his knowledge and his personality. It is therefore clear that his technical training must in general be as sound and catholic as that of his chief; and in addition to this quality, he should possess initiative, disciplinary powers, discretion, and loyalty to his chief and to the existing system. In detail his duties will vary according to the size of the system; and in small libraries he will be merely the superior assistant, taking part in every operation (except the merely mechanical ones, which may be performed by untrained juniors) of the library; in somewhat larger libraries he may arrange the hours and duties of the staff and superintend them, and check all cataloguing and classification. In the largest libraries his work is almost purely administrative.

The conditions of the appointment of a deputy-librarian are somewhat difficult to describe, owing to the divergences we have named. He usually, but not always, works similar hours to the remainder of the staff; has his own office, or, at any rate, private desk; and is usually invested with considerable authority. It should be the aim of the chief librarian to make this office a worthy one—and to see that only worthy persons occupy it. A good deputy gives ^{tone} to the whole staff, as he comes into more intimate contact with it than the chief librarian. His salary should be equal to 60 per cent. of the sum received by the chief librarian, as the scale already given (Section 113) shows.

122. Superintendent (Inspector) of Branches.—This librarian acts as a *liaison* officer between the chief librarian and the branch librarian in systems where there are many branch libraries. He must be qualified to assess the work of each library and to co-ordinate the whole branch system, to arrange time-sheets, examine into the performance of the assistants, judge their capacity and training, and bring out the initiative of branch librarians and assistants, advise as to the books required in particular localities; and, in general, make the units of the system smooth-working parts of a homogeneous whole. It is probable that a capable superintendent is an economy of some consequence in a large system. Few libraries, however, with less than a dozen branches possess such an officer, his duties usually in other cases falling upon the chief or deputy-librarians. The superintendent is subordinate to the deputy-librarian, and his salary is something more than that of a branch or departmental librarian.

123. Departmental Librarians.—Of recent years the

tendency in library work has been towards specialization, and in most libraries of any size assistants are given more or less permanent care of departments, and are usually called librarians-in-charge. The librarian of a branch library falls into this category although he may not occupy exactly the same level on the staff as the librarian-in-charge of the reference library ; as, also, in libraries which have such departments, do the heads of the children's libraries, the cataloguing staff, the commercial library, the "readers' adviser," etc. In the great libraries the librarian-in-charge of the reference department is easily the head of the grade we are discussing, as he must obviously be a person of considerable bibliographical acquirements in addition to being the possessor of a complete library training, and his work lies with inquirers, research workers, and similar readers who require skilled assistance. In other libraries, however, all librarians-in-charge are regarded as official equals. The duties of a librarian-in-charge are to conduct the department according to the prevailing library policy, to arrange and to supervise the work of his staff and to forward their training, to maintain order in all rooms and to exploit the department to the utmost in the public interest.

124. Library Councils.—In some libraries the chief librarians have formed the senior members of his staff into a committee which is variously named, but is commonly called by the large name of the Library Council, which meets weekly or monthly to discuss the current methods of the library system and the means whereby its activities may be improved and its influence extended. Such a council has necessarily only a consultative function, as decisions should be made only by the Chief Librarian. Regular agenda are often used and minutes kept of such meetings. They are surprisingly fruitful in useful suggestions ; even quite impractical suggestions may throw light on the general work. Chief librarians usually take their colleagues into their confidence in this way, and thus a community of interest is created and an enthusiasm is fostered which are well worth having.

125. Assistants.—In America the library assistant is in the best instances a person who is a graduate of a college or who has had a high school education ; who, in addition, has taken a course of one year, or, in special instances, two years at a library school. On this side of the Atlantic we are growing, gradually, in the direction of this ideal, but even in the most generously supported public library in the British Isles there are as yet

few libraries in a position financially to command the services of a graduate-plus-library-school-trained staff. Nor, indeed, is it desirable or economic that a staff should be composed entirely of such persons, even in the largest libraries. Certain persons have natural gifts for our work which education of university rank can increase but cannot create, and it would be a disaster if the profession were closed to them because of what is, in the last analysis, lack of means on the part of their parents and guardians. But we must not be misunderstood; the spread of education is such that even these persons may be able to obtain university training, and what we desire to emphasize is not that university education is unnecessary in the higher work of libraries, for that would be merely absurd, but that a library career should be open to anyone who is naturally fitted for it. The "love of books," which is an excellent basis on which to build, is only one of the several qualifications necessary.

126. With these reservations, the better the initial material the better will be the results. We are dealing with facts as they are as well as with our hopes. It must be clear that in every library there is a great deal of work of a pedestrian character which demands no more for its performance than industry, neatness and accuracy. It is also clear that there are different types of library with different needs; and in the special library a specialist, with library training added, is perhaps desirable. Moreover, in all the larger libraries there are special types of work for which quite different personal qualities are desirable. A good reference librarian might have made a good children's librarian, but the combination of qualities is not common, and the librarian-to-be of the commercial section or the technological section needs to be rather different in each case from the lending librarian or the cataloguer. But all are librarians, and none of them will be successful unless he is that primarily. One further point, the library career is now open to men and women equally, and although women do not always, or indeed often, receive equal pay with men, that is merely the result of a bad, and it is to be hoped, transient tradition. There will, therefore, be no further reference to sex as a qualification or hindrance in this book, save in one instance—women are clearly indicated for the work of children's libraries.

127. It follows from the above that there are in prospect, and in some places there actually exist, two distinct grades of library worker: the clerical and the professional. They need not be absolutely exclusive, and it should be possible for the clerical

worker with the necessary ability to pass upwards to the professional grade. The clerical worker is one who does such duties as keeping the shelves in order, writing book-cards and overdues, preparing books for the shelves, and the obvious simple necessary mechanical tasks. Such assistants should commence work at the maximum age of sixteen, and should have a salary in prospect which should enable them to live as respectable members of society. The number of secondary school pupils now available makes it usually possible to employ matriculants in this grade; and it is desirable to do so in order that they may make the necessary studies that lead to the professional grade. To employ assistants who have not passed a recognized "professional entrance examination" (the school leaving, or matriculation) is unsocial, unless the engagement is terminated early enough to allow the assistant to enter some other occupation easily; and it must be remembered that it is extremely difficult for youngsters who work the required hours in a library to undergo the strain in their spare time of preparing themselves for matriculation. If therefore non-matriculants are employed, and it is intended to retain them, their hours should be so shortened or arranged that they can study. Even when the assistants are matriculated the hours should be such that reasonable time can be given to professional study. The problem is more easily stated than solved, as few libraries, especially the smaller ones, have the means to employ staffs large enough to permit such privileges.

128. The usual term for such assistant is Junior Assistant, and to older and qualified assistants the term Senior Assistants is usually applied. The terms are not good ones, as the word "senior" carries with it a suggestion of age which does not always correspond with the facts. It would be better if some such terms as Junior and Qualified or Uncertificated and Certificated could be substituted. It is true that a "senior" assistant is usually responsible for some special form of work and sometimes directs the work of juniors, but that does not justify a misleading nomenclature. The qualified assistant can be drawn, as we have suggested, from the clerical staff after qualifying either in the Library Association intermediate examination or in the first part of the diploma offered by a library school; or may be engaged as such after completing the whole-time course at the library school. Both methods have their advantages and drawbacks. Some librarians hold that an assistant who has gone through all mechanical tasks

and has studied at the same time is likely to be a better worker than one who has a library school training without that experience; others are equally emphatic—and the Public Libraries Committee Report holds with them—that long experience in writing book-cards, tidying shelves and similar simple work, gives no superiority for the work of cataloguing, classification, book-selection and advising readers, over those who come into the work at a later age with more intensive education and theoretical training. Coming down to actual fact, the ordinary library still finds it necessary to use the younger worker, but the tendency must be to increase the number of library schools and to employ their diplomates. A solution would be for libraries to grant bursaries, and the necessary leave for attendance at library schools, to promising assistants. That again is a matter of means, which may be provided with the growing appreciation of library work.

129. Hours.—An exhaustive inquiry into the hours worked by municipal library assistants was made by the Library Assistants' Association in 1911, who embodied its results in a report. A second enquiry, made by the same body (now called the Association of Assistant Librarians) produced another report in 1931, admirably edited by Mr. F. Seymour Smith. From this emerge several important considerations. Hours are naturally influenced by the prevailing length of working-time in commerce and in other walks of life. The average number worked in libraries in 1908 was 48 weekly; in 1911 it was 45.22; but in 1935 averaged 40, and 38 is fairly common and thought to be adequate. The difficulties which face a librarian in arranging a time-sheet are that he has usually too small a staff, and that the library is in many or all of its departments open twelve or more hours daily. This involves evening work on several days in the week, and means that the hours are irregular. At the same time the nature of library work is exacting, and much more efficient work can be expected from a seven-hours', or even shorter, day than from a longer one. Study, recreation and social experience are absolutely necessary for successful work; and time-sheets should be arranged to make these possible. The library authority whose staff is so small that long hours are necessary to keep the library open is attempting at the expense of the health and whole natural life of its staff to do more work than the community has a right to expect. Even with the seven-hour day the broken hours involved form the least attractive feature of library work. The

[illegible]

FIG. 11.—SUGGESTED TIME-SHEET (Library Assistants' Association, 1911). (Section 129.)

Hours of duty, 42 per week. Each assistant has a half-day and an evening off, works one night until 10 o'clock, and comes on one morning at 8.45. The library is assumed to be open all the week, and where an early closing day is in vogue, the time-sheet is simplified by confining nearly all the half-holidays to that day.

The time-sheet would be much improved if 5 p.m. were substituted for 6 p.m. on the evening off; an assistant leaving at 6, after he has had a meal, has very little *evening* left. It should be the endeavor so to adjust the sheet that each assistant is off every other evening, the half-day counting as one. Local circumstances will suggest variations, which can easily be made.

time-sheet shown in 1911 by the Library Assistants' Association is given as an illustration of the kind of hours that many libraries have to cover. It provides for a half-holiday weekly and for hours of recreation and study. Continual improvements are being made. Many libraries close earlier than 9 p.m., 8 being fairly common and 7 occurs in some places. The effort is to give each worker three nights off weekly, one of them to be continuous with the half-day. This is preferred here to the whole day and one evening off which some librarians advocate as it appears to spread the opportunities for social life more evenly. "Split-duties" (*i.e.* 9-1 and 5-9) are much disliked, but no time-sheet has yet been produced which dispenses with them and does not create at least equal disadvantages. It should also be the aim to make the use of the sheet regular, so that assistants may know what evenings, for example, are at their disposal throughout the year. Modifications are sometimes made during the summer months, when the work is slacker, in the direction of giving the assistants more free time.

130. Sunday Work.—A few libraries remain open on Sundays and on public holidays, usually for a part of the day. About half of these pay extra remuneration for hours worked on these days; others allow time off for it; and in one or two places Hebrew assistants have been specially employed for Sunday duty.

131. Notes on Duties.—The smallness of staffs often makes it necessary to put the work of issuing books to readers in the hands of juniors. The actual charging of books is indeed a mechanical process, but its performance is carried out at one of the main points of contact with the public where knowledge and experience are of great value. Larger libraries have, as a rule, departmental staffs which are confined to the work of the particular department to which they are accredited. This is undoubtedly the most business-like and economical method; but every assistant should be given the opportunity of learning the work of every department and should be required to do so. This may be done by transferring the assistants at not too lengthy intervals. In smaller libraries this departmental division does not exist, and an assistant may work in the lending library in the morning, in the reference library in the evening, and at a branch to-morrow, just as the exigencies of the service dictate.

Ordinary qualified ("senior") assistants occupy a position somewhat analogous to that of non-commissioned officers, and

act as reliefs to the librarians-in-charge. Often, as we have said above, they are made responsible for some branch of the routine, as, for example, book-binding, defaulters, registration of borrowers, etc., and this is a good method, provided that any one assistant is not confined rigidly and for too long to one task.

All assistants should understand the implications of the statements in Section 119. The one recommendation of a library is a satisfied community of readers. To this end the impression should never be given that the needs of a reader cannot be met until the whole resources of the library and all libraries with which it has affiliations have been exhausted. This means team work on the part of the whole staff. Juniors must pass on to seniors difficulties which they cannot solve, and they in turn must if they fail, see that they reach the chief librarian.

132. Diary.—It is a good plan to use a work diary or duty book, in which the daily duties of each assistant can be entered. By means of such a book it is easy to change the work about, in order to give every assistant an opportunity of doing everything in turn; and it is necessary because of the changes worked on the composition of the staff by the time-sheet. A form of diary for a library where the staff is not departmental is shown in the ruling below (Fig. 12, page 92), which can be adjusted to meet the conditions in large libraries. The names or numbers of the assistants are written or printed in the margin, and against these the particular duty, or set of duties, to be performed that day are written. This book is generally made up by the librarian-in-charge and checked by the deputy-librarian or the chief librarian. In small libraries the librarian can write up this record. Apart from its value as a simple means of distributing and fixing duties, it is a record of visitors or callers, errors, absences of staff, progress of certain pieces of work, checks of various kinds, and may even be used as a staff time-book. It is a guide to the work of a library and a check upon results. For convenience' sake the assistants are numbered in order of seniority.

133. The method of using this book is very simple. If there are ten assistants or under, one page only is used, each member of the staff receiving an appropriate number. If there are more than ten assistants two pages are used, the numbers on the second page having the figure 1 prefixed to them, and the 10 being altered to 20. Thus page 2 will appear as 11, 12, 13, 14, etc. If there are more than twenty assistants a third page can be used, the existing numbers having 2 prefixed as before.

Each assistant on arriving or departing enters on the "Time-Sheet" the time in the spaces reserved, beginning the day with the first column. The assistants who check and tidy *a* to *d* in the mornings write their initials opposite the particular duty, while those who attend to the charging system, date stamps, overdues and cash for change also initial the item, the amount of change being stated. Against each assistant's number is written his or her duties for the day. The first page or pages of the work book should be reserved as a key, and the names of

Date.....									
Time-Sheet.						Daily Checks.			
	Arr.	Dep.	Arr.	Dep.	Arr.	Dep.	Department.	Initial.	
1							<i>a</i> Reference		
2							<i>b</i> Lending		
3							<i>c</i> Reading Room		
4							<i>d</i> Juvenile		
5							<i>e</i> Overdues		
6							<i>f</i> Charging System		
7							<i>g</i> Change (money)		
8							<i>h</i>		
9							<i>i</i>		
10							<i>k</i>		
1							New Orders.		
2									
3									
4									
5									
6									
7									
8									
9									
10									
NOTES.—[Callers, Complaints, Errors, Lost or Found Property, etc.]									

FIG. 12.—Staff Work Book (Section 132).

the assistants should be written against the numbers which represent them. The column "New Orders" is for new instructions for all the staff. These should be entered briefly in red ink from the bottom towards the top of the page. The NOTES lines will receive all items specified and any other notable incidents occurring in the course of each day, such as "Break-down of Electric Light," "Drunken man expelled," etc. The diary must be kept in a definite place, and every assistant should be held responsible for entering up his own notes and time. Any note of a general kind must be entered by the senior officer present on duty. The work book should be submitted to the chief librarian every morning.

134. Salaries.—Salaries are the most difficult question the library profession has to meet. Up to the present few library workers have been paid more than a living wage, and many have received barely that. It is obvious that increases in this direction are essential in the new conditions; and there is no reason, except the want of goodwill upon the part of library authorities, why better salaries should not be paid in the larger towns and in the counties at any rate. We saw in Section 66 that the average amount spent on salaries in the United Kingdom was from about 40 to 44.6 per cent. of the entire income.

The Library Association, in conjunction with the National Association of Local Government officers, considered the question in 1924 and agreed on the following table. The scheme is not satisfactory in many ways.

A.-B. Age scale only (16-17)	£80 to £155.
C. A higher grade of work is indicated irrespective of age	£180 to £240.
D. A still higher grade involving more skilled duties and responsibility than C	£260 to £325.

The increments in each case to be £15 per annum. For sub-librarians and deputy-librarians the scale given in Fig. 10 (Section 113) applies.

The whole position is so fluid and unsatisfactory that to pursue it further is not profitable. The Public Libraries Report recommends that with due regard to qualifications, "the trained librarian should be paid no less than the trained teacher, and the one profession should not be less attractive than the other."¹

135. All salaries, whether paid monthly or weekly, should not be subject to any deduction on account of absences from illness

¹ Public Libraries Report, 1927, p. 206.

(except in so far as the matter is governed by National Health and Unemployment Insurance, and Superannuation rules), holidays, or other causes. The annual increases should be granted provided the report of the chief librarian is satisfactory, but no assistant should be allowed to hold the view that increases are automatic and not dependent upon satisfactory service. It is usual to arrange for the whole of the increases to become due at the same date, so that they can all be considered at one meeting of the committee.

136. Vacation.—The time granted for annual holidays ranges from three weeks or more for deputy-librarians and departmental librarians to one week for juniors. A week or ten days is not sufficient for rest and change, and a fortnight is the minimum that should be allowed.

137. Staff Training.—We have indicated some of the factors of library training. It will be well to be more specific. Every assistance in and inducement to study should be given to assistants. Definite study of *literature* should be required from the first year, and the importance of the reading of literary reviews and periodicals as well as of keeping in touch with all professional associations and library literature should be inculcated. The studies of the librarian never cease. Younger assistants can receive great help if their seniors, under the advice of the chief librarian, supervise their studies, and one of the most pleasant features of the profession in the past has been the willingness of seniors to help in this way. In effect it often works out that chief librarians supervise the training of the staff, and librarians-in-charge accept responsibility for directing the studies of subordinates, and in small libraries the deputy-librarian assumes this duty. Some libraries have staff guilds which hold regular classes, sometimes with outside teachers in special subjects; and the plan is to be commended. All books that may be required should be provided by the library, and class fees and examination expenses of successful students are paid in many towns—a method which deserves universal adoption. Every assistant who has not qualified before appointment should obtain the syllabuses of the Library Association examination courses and those of the University of London Library School with the intention of taking the courses of one of them; but, as that is all implied in what has already been stated, all we wish to say here is that it is of the utmost importance that the staff should keep its knowledge current.

138. The Library Economy Library.—The foundation of

all training is a collection of works on library economy and bibliography ; without which a library is not properly equipped. Every recognized text-book on the theory and practice of every department of librarianship, all library periodicals, the best examples of catalogues, bulletins, reading lists, annual reports, and the standard bibliographies, should be available on the freest conditions. Some libraries set apart a definite sum annually for the purchase of such works ; and its expenditure is one of the best ultimate economies in which a committee can engage. Moreover, the institution which ostensibly provides the literature of all other professions is obviously in a ridiculous position if it does not provide the literature of librarianship. In the Appendix we give a list of the works which should form the professional collection of every library of average size ; and even small libraries should endeavour to become possessed of the majority of them.

139. Caretakers.—A satisfactory janitor or caretaker, generally speaking, is a valuable member of staff, and is rare. Caretakers' wages vary all over the country, according to the size of the library, amount of work and perquisites. In cases where a residence is provided, it is usual to secure the services of a man and his wife, and furnish him with a uniform and the usual light, coal, etc. In such cases the wages are usually less than when a man has to find his own residence. The wages of such workers are usually governed by joint (or other) industrial councils, and vary according to place and the cost of living. In large libraries extra assistance should always be provided, and the cleaning should be done early in the morning, before the hour of opening. A sufficient staff of cleaners should be provided to enable this to be done without interfering with the service of the public. Rates of pay for this class of work differ so much that it is impossible to lay down a general rule.

A caretaker should be made responsible to the librarian for the cleanliness and order of the building, and his duties should include a certain number of hours' attendance in uniform as general overseer of the rooms and their frequenters. It is imperative that this official should not be allowed to develop the attitude of a Jack-in-office, and in all his patrol work courtesy and firmness should be required. Eight or nine hours daily should be considered full time for a caretaker, and suitable arrangements must be made to enable him to remain off duty at hours when the business is quiet. In large libraries it is customary to employ a staff of janitors or caretakers.

140. Staff Accommodation.—In libraries of every size private rooms of suitable dimensions should be provided for the librarian and the assistants; with work- and store-rooms for the staff and caretaker. The librarian's room in small libraries may be made large enough to serve as a committee room, and in all cases should have separate lavatory accommodation. A large safe or strong room is often attached to the librarian's room, or in a secure part of the basement, in which to store valuable documents and books. It should be shelved to contain such documents as registers, minutes and other local records in a convenient manner, and should be kept well ventilated and dry for the safe preservation of its contents. Strong rooms vary in size from 4 feet \times 6 feet \times 8 feet, to large apartments 20 feet \times 20 feet and upwards. The usual furnishings of a librarian's room comprise a desk, table, bookshelves, chairs, hat and umbrella stand, and other office furniture. Staff mess-rooms should be fitted with tables, chairs, cupboards, with a locker for each assistant, cooking apparatus and other appliances. Work-rooms for staff use must be fitted to suit the class of work carried on, whether cataloguing or preparing books, binding or filing. Storerooms for general purposes and for the use of the caretaker should also be provided, fitted with all necessary cupboards and shelving. Separate staff rooms are usually, but not always, provided for each sex, and separate lavatory accommodation is essential.

CHAPTER VIII

LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS

141. Throughout the world librarians have organized themselves in professional associations for the improvement of the work, the education of library workers, and the supply of information. The largest of these societies is the American Library Association, which has about 10,000 members ; many other countries have such societies, and the most recent development of the idea is the International Library Federation. In the British Isles there exist the Library Association, to which are affiliated the Scottish Library Association and the Association of Assistant Librarians, and the Irish Free State Association, which is at present an independent body.

142. The Library Association.—This body, which has a membership of over 5,000, is the central force of British librarianship. It was founded in 1877 at the First International Library Conference, which was held in London. In 1898 it received a Royal Charter by which it became the responsible representative body of the profession. Its objects as set out in the Charter are to unite all persons engaged or interested in libraries by means of conferences and meetings for the discussion of bibliography and all other phases of librarianship ; to promote the better administration of libraries ; to improve the position and qualifications of librarians ; to promote the adoption of the Public Libraries Acts and the establishment of reference and lending libraries for use by the public ; to watch and promote legislation affecting public libraries ; to encourage bibliographical study and research ; to publish information of service to the members, or which in any way furthers the interests of the Association ; to collect and maintain a library and museum ; to hold examinations in librarianship and to issue certificates of efficiency ; and to maintain in every lawful way the interests of libraries and their workers. The Association has excellent headquarters at Chaucer House, Malet Place, London, W.C. 1, which were made available by the Carnegie Trustees and were furnished and fitted by the mem-

bers; and were opened by Mr. Stanley Baldwin¹ in 1933. In addition to an attractive Assembly Room which is also shelved for the Association's Library, committee rooms, and the business offices, there is a fine members' room, comfortably furnished, where luncheons and other meals are served and thus Chaucer House has a certain highly-desirable "club" character. The Library is supplemented by an information bureau, in the establishment of which the Association has been aided by the Rockefeller Foundation, which collects and makes available to all who need it the most recent knowledge concerning libraries.

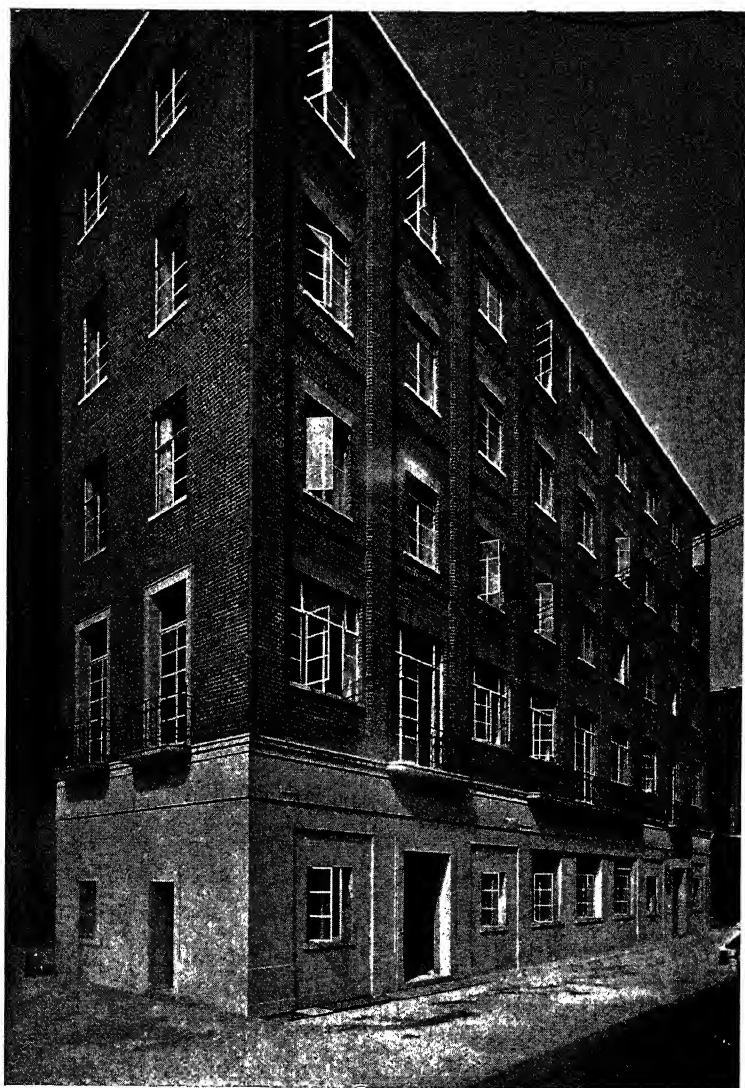
143. It should be observed that the Association is not purely professional; it seeks the co-operation in membership of library authorities as institution members, individual members of library committees, and all persons interested in libraries, as well as library workers themselves. In its public relations it is mainly a consultant and advisory body, but it has power under its charter to expel from membership authorities or persons whose actions are at variance with the charter. It appeals to the library world in a multiplicity of ways, as it is organized into divisions and sections which study the interests of assistant librarians, county librarians and university and research librarians, as well as other types; and it has branches in London and in other parts of the country which make it possible for members to meet without great difficulty.

144. **Registration.**—While its membership is open to all suitable people, it maintains a professional register for librarians. By this librarians are classified as Fellows or Associates according to their degree of attainment.

Fellows are elected from persons who hold the diploma of the Association, after passing the examinations described below (Section 146). Diplomates of recognized schools of librarianship may also be elected, if they have also passed a prescribed part of the Final Examination of the Association. It is also possible for persons of special distinction in librarianship to be elected, in order to attach to the Association those directors of great libraries who have been appointed without special training as librarians.

Associates are librarians who were Members of the Library Association prior to 1928; librarians who have passed the

¹ To be strictly accurate, Lord Irwin (now Viscount Halifax), President of the Board of Education, deputised for Mr. Baldwin, who was held up by parliamentary business; but Mr. Baldwin attended lunch with the Council prior to the ceremony which was performed in his name.



[Photo by Herbert Felton.]

FIG. 13.—Chaucer House, London, the Headquarters of the Library Association
(Sections 141-153).

Intermediate Examination of the Association and have had three years of paid, approved service ; and persons who possess the diploma of a recognized school of librarianship, and are not qualified as Fellows.

These are entitled, *so long as they remain in membership*, to use the letters F.L.A. or A.L.A., as the case may be, after their names.

145. The branches and sections hold frequent meetings independently and jointly, at which visits are made and professional papers read and discussed. The whole Association meets in Annual Conference yearly, when it is generally the guest of some municipality, for discussion of wider questions. This is the principal library event of the year, and every library worker who can should attend, as more is to be learned during that week than in many months of solitary study of library matters. Library committees should not only encourage their librarians to attend ; they should delegate some of their own number to attend, and pay the expenses involved in both cases. The papers and discussions are usually published in *The Library Association Record*, the monthly official journal which is issued free to members.

146. Educational Work.—From the point of view of the probable reader of this MANUAL the most important part of the Association's work is that of its Education Committee. The committee promotes and co-ordinates all suitable kinds of library training, and holds examinations, twice yearly at present, in May and December. Any person *in membership* of the Association is admitted to these examinations. The syllabus has undergone several revisions since its inception about 35 years ago, and the latest scheme will operate from January 1st, 1938.¹ This scheme is as follows. Candidates must be not less than 17 and must have passed the Schools Leaving or an equivalent general examination.

I.—ELEMENTARY.

1, English Literary History (3 hours) ; 2, *Elementary* Classification, Cataloguing and Accession Methods (1½ hours) ; 3, Elementary Library Administration (1½ hours). Candidates must pass in all three divisions at one examination.

¹ Particulars of the existing scheme and fuller details of the 1938 one are given in *The Library Association Year Book*, 1936, obtainable from Chaucer House.

II.—INTERMEDIATE.

Candidates must have passed the ~~Elementary Examination~~ (or obtain exemption if they are ~~Graduates~~ and must present an approved certificate in one of the following languages: Latin, Greek, French, German, Italian, Spanish, Dutch, Irish, Welsh. (A second language is required before admission to the Final Examination.)

Four three-hour papers:

- 1, Intermediate Library Routine.
- 2, Library Stock and Assistance to Readers.
- 3, Intermediate Cataloguing.
- 4, Intermediate Classification.

III.—FINAL.

Part I. (a) General Bibliography and Book Selection.

(2 papers, each 3 hours.)

(b) Historical Bibliography.

or

(c) Palæography and Archives.

or

(d) Indexing and Abstracting.

(1 paper of 3 hours, except (c) which will be 2 papers, each of 3 hours.)

(e) Advanced Classification and Cataloguing.

(1 paper of 3 hours.)

Part II. (a) English Literary History.

(2 papers, each 3 hours.)

(b) Advanced Library Administration.

(2 papers, each 3 hours.)

Part III. For this candidates must write in their own time an essay, of not more than 10,000 words, the subject of which must first be approved by the Education Committee. Each candidate whose essay is accepted must attend a *viva voce* examination on the subject of the essay.

A very full syllabus, indispensable for students, in which each subject is clearly outlined, appears in *The Library Association Year Book*, together with lists of recommended text-books and the examination papers set in the two examinations held prior to the date of publication. It may be noted that the 1938 Intermediate Examination may be considered to qualify senior assistants, deputies in small libraries, second assistants

at large branches, etc. ; while the Final is definitely for chief librarians and the other higher grades of the service. Successful candidates in Part II may apply to be registered as Associates (A.L.A.) and in Part II as Fellows (F.L.A.). If granted, they should on all suitable occasions use the letters after their names ; they have been hardly won and the pretence that they are of no consequence is mere affectation.

147. The method of preparation is left to the candidate. Probably the most satisfactory is the training provided by the University of London School of Librarianship, which trains for the L.A. examinations as well as those of the University. There are also oral classes at Manchester and elsewhere, and brief summer schools which are extremely useful. All direct teaching, however, is limited to those who can attend it ; and to meet the needs of those whom distance or expense deprives of that advantage, the Association has arranged a very elaborate system of correspondence courses, with able tutors, which is conducted for it by the Association of Assistant Librarians.

We conclude these remarks by saying that librarians may be judged by their relations with the Library Association. Their place on the Register is in a broad sense the seal upon their experience and qualifications ; and the catholicity of the Association's educational work and its record of activity on behalf of libraries and librarians command the respect and adherence of all who are likely to read this book. No professional library worker should consider it consistent with his self-respect to remain outside this Association.

148. **The Association of Assistant Librarians.**—This is now a section of the Library Association, but it has almost autonomous powers still. It is for assistants in municipal and institutional (but not commercial lending) libraries, and was founded in 1895 by the members of one of the Library Association Summer Schools, to educate, and to protect the special interests of assistants, and to provide them with a freer platform than the Library Association seemed to offer. By means of monthly meetings held throughout the winter at various libraries, the reading of papers, discussions, etc. ; by study circles, summer schools, international visits to libraries, and other activities, it has changed for the better the whole tone of the library service, and has won for itself a distinct place amongst professional associations. It is organized on lines similar to those of the Library Association, being governed by a President, Honorary Treasurer, and Honorary Secretary

and Council. The Association has several district divisions ; maintains a good professional library ; issues free to all members a monthly journal, *The Library Assistant* ; and has been responsible for various valuable brief publications included the "A.A.L. Series."

149. The Library Association of Ireland has its headquarters at the Irish Central Library for Students, 53, Upper Mount Street, Dublin, and limits its activities to the Irish Free State. It publishes its proceedings in *An Leabharlann*, a quarterly journal, in Irish and in English, and holds an annual conference. It has done much to promote co-operation and to quicken the movement. A society of much interest is the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureau (A.S.L.I.B.) which has headquarters at 16, Russell Square, London, W.C. 1. It unites business and research librarians and a multiplicity of learned and industrial interests. It holds an annual week-end conference, usually in September, at a university town, of which it publishes a full report ; it publishes a small periodical of information, a valuable directory of special libraries, and a quarterly list of books in pure and applied sciences which itself is worth its subscription. The Society of Public Librarians is a small body of librarians which meets in London for the reading and discussion of papers. It does not seek to add to its membership except by the nomination of existing members. Lately a Guild of Essex Librarians has been founded as an example of local library friendship. A Circle of Children's Librarians also exists.

150. Societies which are not mainly for librarians, but which are of considerable interest to them, are the Bibliographical Society and the Museums Association, the latter of which has headquarters at Chaucer House. The Bibliographical Society, founded in 1892, has its headquarters at the British Academy's Rooms, Burlington Gardens, London, W. 1, and exists for the promoting of the study of the book and manuscript mainly in their historical and bibliographical characteristics. It meets monthly for the reading and discussion of papers, and publishes, to members only, valuable works on matters within its province. The annual subscription is two guineas, and the entrance fee is one guinea. Its organ is *The Library*. The Edinburgh Bibliographical Society (at the Philosophical Institution's Rooms) has similar activities and objects.

The Museums Association, founded in 1889, has for its object the bringing together of museum officials, members of museum

committees, and others interested in museum work for mutual discussion and help. Its membership is made up of persons who pay a subscription of two guineas per annum, and associates who pay one guinea. An annual meeting, usually lasting four days, is held in July, when papers are read and discussed. The *Museums Journal*, published monthly, contains the transactions.

151. College Societies.—At University College, London, the School of Librarianship Students' Association, and the Librarianship Old Students' Association keep together the past and present alumni of the School by means of debates, social meetings, etc., and introduce a most valuable feature in librarianship—a community of interest in a common training-ground and all who have been associated with it.

152. Staff Guilds, Etc.—It will be appropriate to say a little here about the private organizations of library staffs, known as guilds, or clubs, which are becoming a feature of larger libraries here and in America. The members of the staff band themselves together for mutual improvement and recreation, with a committee chosen of their own numbers to direct their activities. These latter include classes in library economy, literature and other subjects of interest to assistants for the younger members of the staff, and reading circles, elocution classes, etc., for the older ones. Recreations, as cricket, swimming, walking, photography and other sports, are also arranged by the guilds; and at Croydon there is an annual excursion which is recognized by the public, the libraries being closed for the purpose on the chosen day. Croydon, Fulham, Manchester and Glasgow have issued staff magazines in connection with their clubs; these are usually cyclostyles publications, although *The Manchester Librarian* is printed. The Islington club has distinguished itself for social gatherings, and the New Year's gathering of the Glasgow club is one of the features of the library year. Wisely conducted, these guilds have a great influence for good, are an incentive to study, and to that better work which comes from mutual understanding. They should be recognized by the library committee and the chief librarian, but should be quite autonomous.

Friedel, J. H. Training for Librarianship. Library work as a career. [1921].

Library Association Year Book. (*See* section 146, above).

London, University of. School of Librarianship at University College, 1919, and annually to date.

(In connexion with this, see J. D. Cowley's "Training for Special Library Work," in the *Report of Proceedings of the Twelfth Conference* (1935) of the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureau, pp. 26-29. London, 1935).

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(Classics of American Librarianship.) N.Y. 1933.

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Williamson, C. C. Training for Library Service. New York, 1923.

The Public Libraries Report, 1927, should be studied in this connexion.

There are, according to A. E. Bostwick, 19 library schools in America in connexion with university and public libraries, and they have their own society, the Association of American Library Schools.

For articles, see Cannons, G., Library Schools, and Library Literature, 219-220, 367-369.

STAFF, ETC.

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but nothing published separately except what is listed under " Library Training " above.

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Library Literature, p. 20.

DIVISION III

LIBRARY BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

CHAPTER IX

LIBRARY BUILDINGS

154. Introductory.—Library planning and architecture have assumed great interest in recent years, owing to the universal development of the library service and the need for varying types of accommodation to meet varying circumstances. Here we shall attempt the briefest survey of the field of the subject ; that is to say, the kinds of places that must be provided with library buildings ; and then shall endeavour to repeat the principles on which librarians are in general agreement as to sites, the external character of buildings, and, most important of all, the interior planning. If we could lay down one general ideal principle for library buildings it would be that they must be distinctively libraries, must be appropriate in appearance, and the interior plan must be the most convenient that can be devised both for readers and staff. There are many kinds and sizes of buildings required. We shall not attempt here to deal with the planning of libraries on the scale of the British Museum, the Library of Congress or the Bibliothèque National, interesting as the subject is. This may be read in various special treatises, and is not likely to concern the average librarian in a practical way. The municipal libraries, however, begin with systems of great size with many buildings, and continue in a descending scale of size to the small country-village library of one or two moderately sized rooms.

155. The Site.—For all libraries certain principles as to site and architecture hold in common. The law of convenience applies with special force to libraries, and the ideal site for a library is where the population is densest, but at the same time so placed in relation to main streets that quiet can be obtained.

The main requirement is space of sufficient size ; æsthetically,

to secure an appropriate approach to and setting off of the building; practically, to give adequate light and ventilation which cannot always be secured when adjacent buildings abut on or overlook the site too closely, and to make the library as immune as possible from noise, the odours of certain businesses, and from the danger of fire. It cannot be too often asserted that libraries grow rapidly, and it is most desirable that a site well in excess of immediate requirements should be obtained if possible for future extension. It is not the business of the librarian to plan for all posterity, but it is reasonable to look ahead, say for fifty years, and to bear in mind the probable expansion of population and the annual intaking and discarding of books in relation to the number published. After fifty years nearly any library will need to be rebuilt.

If such a site is available, the building should be set well back from the road, and if a garden approach to it can be made, so much the better. This is sometimes achieved and its effect is pleasing and helps to create the atmosphere of beauty in which books ought to be found.

156. Exteriors.—When we come to the exterior architecture of public libraries we arrive at several difficulties. It cannot be said that our ideal building which is so distinctively a library that it cannot be mistaken for a bank, a school, or the gas offices, has been entirely realized. The most beautiful modern libraries, such as the John Rylands at Manchester, are reversions to the ecclesiastical or collegiate style, although there is a good example of the classical style in the Harris Library at Preston; but, admirable as these are, none of them is distinctively a library. In what may be called the Carnegie period, from about 1900 to the present, a convenient mode of library architecture, mainly in red brick with white stone dressings but nondescript in style, has prevailed. Many of these buildings are acceptable in appearance, and some of them most convenient for working purposes, but few buildings here, or in America (where the Renaissance palace of Florence seems to have suggested the standard model), can be said to be so much like a library that it cannot at first glance, apart from the lettering on it, be mistaken for something else. Seeing that architects achieve effects in buildings which appear to be based on combinations of soap boxes and salmon tins,¹ it ought to be possible to get a beautiful combination based on the physical shape of a book. Perhaps this problem, which we

¹ The fine Stockholm Library for example.

think to be an important practical one, is incapable of solution ; but we believe it to be worth the consideration of architects. A library building ought to be beautiful, and beauty is sometimes expensive, but the modern view is that in the long run beauty in business buildings is economical. To crystallize these points : it is safe to say that the building should be in the style that is characteristic of the locality, be of local materials, and preferably be designed by a local architect. Nearly every town, or at least every county, has a domestic style of architecture which is based on the available local materials, and the architect should be the best that can be discovered by competition or otherwise ; and when we urge that he should be " local " we mean that he should be the man most successful in dealing with local styles and not necessarily someone living in the place. All public buildings are monuments to the community's good or bad taste, and a commission to build one should be regarded by all good architects as a high compliment.

157. In practice it often happens that the design is made by the Borough Engineer, who is not usually an architect but has an architect assistant. The latter is called upon to design everything from houses for the working classes to hospitals and baths, and must be fertile indeed if he can produce a really first-rate library. The method has, however, certain advantages, for unless the architect has far more authority than he ought to possess, he will consult the librarian at every stage of his work, and so secure the best practical result. Indeed, whoever may design the building, the preliminary plan should be drawn by the librarian showing the nature of the accommodation and the position of the rooms, and it is imperative that the architect should adapt his art to that plan. James Duff Brown preferred that an architect with a known acquaintance with library planning should be chosen and should be asked to design in accordance with the librarian's sketch plan, and bearing in mind the desirability of adhering to local styles, this may be the best way.

158. Architectural Competitions.—Many authorities prefer a competition, and this has much to commend it, as offering an opportunity to the architectural profession generally to produce that distinctive style which is still wanting. When a competition is decided upon the library authority offers a premium for the best plans submitted, and appoints an assessor, who must of course be paid, on the nomination of the Royal

Institute of British Architects or some other competent authority. Premiated designs become the property of the Committee. It is usual to merge the premium of the successful architect whose design is carried out into the fee paid him for superintending the work, which amounts to 5 per cent. on the cost of the building, including all extras.

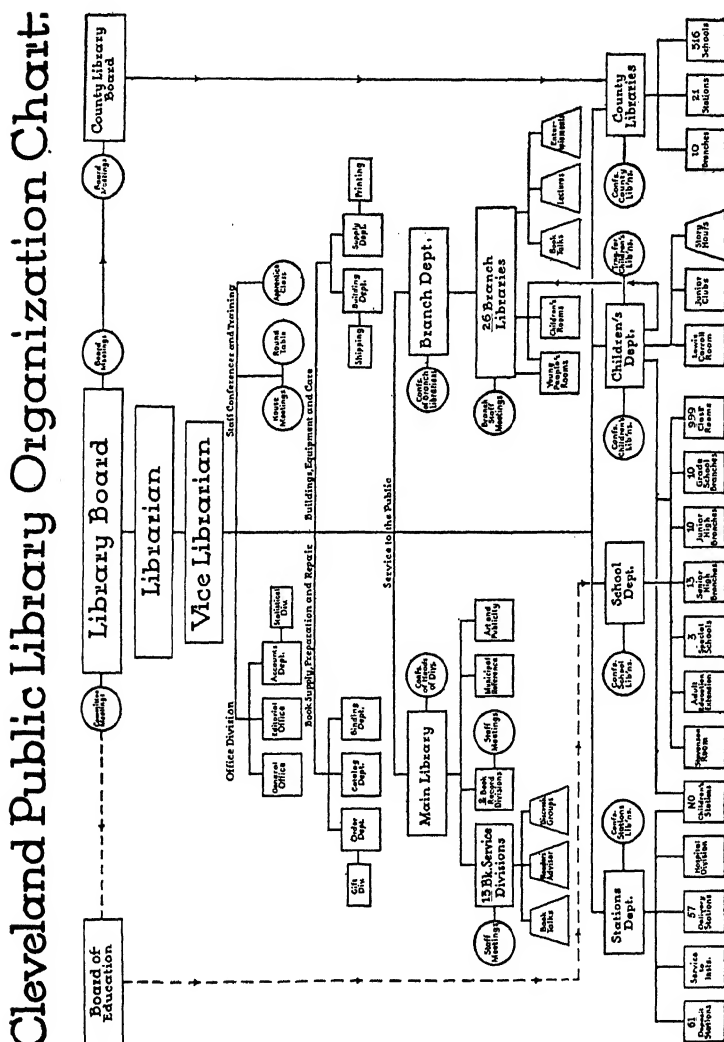


Fig. 14 (Section 161).

159. Instructions and Plan.—The instructions to the competitors should be accompanied by a plan of the site drawn to quarter- or eighth-inch scale, and showing building line and ancient lights, if any. They should specify the amount and kind of accommodation required on each floor, and state that the cost should not exceed a certain sum exclusive of movable furniture. Permanent fittings should include bookcases, wall and standard; screens, counters, wall slopes for newspapers, barriers, and any other kind of fixture. The conditions governing premiums and assessing should be sent with the instructions and site plan. All competitive designs should be drawn to the same scale (one-fourth or one-eighth inch), and should be finished in black without colour or ornament. Perspective drawings, in addition to elevations, may be sent at the discretion of each competitor. Each set of drawings should include a plan of every floor, showing proposed arrangement of bookcases, counters, furniture, etc.; an elevation of every face; and a section through the building both ways. At least three months should be allowed for the sending in of designs. Usually the assessor draws up the instructions, and afterwards circulates answers to any questions which may be put by the competitors.

The competing drawings should be sent in unmarked in any way, but should be numbered in order of receipt, so that the assessor and committee cannot recognize the author. The competitor's name and address should be sent separately in a sealed envelope marked on the outside with the same number, and some such words as "architect's name and address," to prevent accidental opening. It is the duty of the assessor to advise the committee as to the practicability of every design; to determine if it is in accordance with the instructions; to ascertain if it can be carried out for the amount stated; and to judge which designs are first, second and third in order of merit after fulfilling the conditions of the instructions.

160. The following rules for library plans can be used by architectural assessors and librarians as a guide for the average building:

1. Interior arrangements must take precedence of architectural features when the two clash.
2. Sufficient natural light should be secured in every room; windows should run up to ceilings.
3. Stairs should be straight.
4. All floors should be level.

5. No public room should be made a thoroughfare leading to any other public room.
6. All exits from public rooms should be within view of the staff.
7. Oversight of public rooms should, if possible, be secured without the need for special officers in every room. For this purpose ornamental glazed partitions are preferable to solid walls.
8. No passage for public traffic should be less than 4 feet wide. Where movable chairs are used the passages should be from 6 to 8 feet wide.
9. Cross gangways between table-ends and bookcase-ends should not be less than 3 feet.
10. Bookcases should not exceed 7 feet 6 inches in height, and shelves should be of the uniform length of 3 feet, unless for folio and quarto stock, when 18 inches will be found better. For fiction wall shelves in open access libraries, the depth should not exceed 7 inches from back to front.
11. Standard bookcases in public rooms should be spaced at not less than 6 feet apart when facing each other, and in at not less than 3 feet in private rooms.
12. Magazine room readers should be allowed not less than 12 superficial feet each, including table and passage room.
13. Reference library readers should be allowed not less than 18 superficial feet, including table and passage room.
14. In open lending libraries it will be found that a useful general rule is to allow 20 square feet to *every borrower estimated to be present at one time*. This calculation allows for gangways, stock and readers.
15. Allow nine volumes per foot run in lending library shelving, and eight volumes per foot run in reference library shelving. A 7 foot 6 inch bookcase should give an average of eight shelves per tier in a lending library, and about the same in a reference library, if separate provision is made in wall cases for folio and other large books.
16. Public lobbies and staircases must be arranged according to the rules laid down by any local or general building act or bye-law.
17. Newspaper slopes should allow an average of 4 feet run for every paper. This will provide for spaces between papers.
18. While attempts may be made legitimately by suitable frescoes to make the walls attractive, these should not be so pronounced as to attract visitors merely to see them, as these interfere with readers.
19. There should be communication by telephone between all rooms. All libraries are of course on the Post Office Telephone for extra-mural work.
20. Electric light is to be preferred, with the main switchboard in a separate department outside the building if possible.
21. Heating and ventilation should be adequate, and the boiler-house (where coal or coke fuel is used and not the more cleanly and convenient oil or electric heating) should be accessible for the delivery of fuel and for stoking.

The competition designs for library buildings may well be placed on exhibition, to enable the public and other interested persons to compare the premiated with the other drawings.

161. Library Organization: The Large Library.—The plan of the individual library building must depend upon the organization of the library service in its area. There are

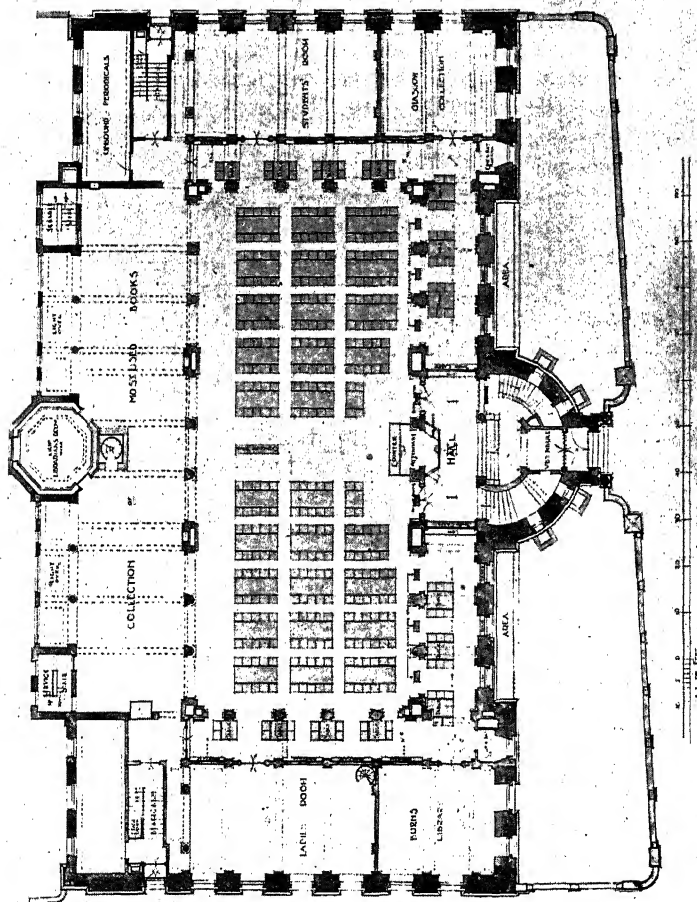


FIG. 15.—The Mitchell Library, Glasgow, Ground Floor Plan (Section 174).

obviously large towns and small and their requirements differ both in kind and degree. It is obvious that the great city and the county tend to approximate to a scheme which is more or less general in Great Britain and America. This consists of a central administration and a series of distributing centres. That the counties have not developed as far as the great towns is merely because of their youth. It is not necessary in a manual of this kind to attempt to describe all the needs of a great city library plan, although indications will be given, because each city, even if it has a general resemblance to others, has its peculiar problems. We are more concerned with average than with exceptional libraries. The large city library service may be indicated by the diagram, reproduced from the Annual Report of the Cleveland, Ohio, Library for 1927 (Fig. 14), which shows all the departments for which provision may have to be made.

162. Administration Rooms.—In this country a library system requires a committee or board room ; a chief librarian's office, which is sometimes combined with the committee room ; a secretarial department for typists and other similar workers ; offices for the deputy-librarian, superintendent of branches and children's librarian ; an administrative department with sections for orders, accessioning, cataloguing, binding, and sometimes printing, with a dispatching or shipping department ; and stores and janitor departments. The largest libraries have engineering or building departments. In addition there are common rooms for the staff and sometimes restaurants and even baths—these last in American cities where the great summer heat makes them not only an agreeable but a necessary part of the equipment for staff that cannot easily get home to change in the course of the day ; they are not provided in any British library yet. These departments are often omitted in part when a library authority attempts to build a library before it has appointed a professional librarian, and the consequent difficulties are great and expensive to remove. It will be noticed that all the departments named are executive or internal ones. They are usually, but not always, housed at the central or main library building.

163. Public Departments : The Central Library.—In the central library also is usually to be found the principal public department, the general reference library, which, as befits the intellectual centre of a city, is usually in the finest apartment in the system and is connected with large stack-rooms

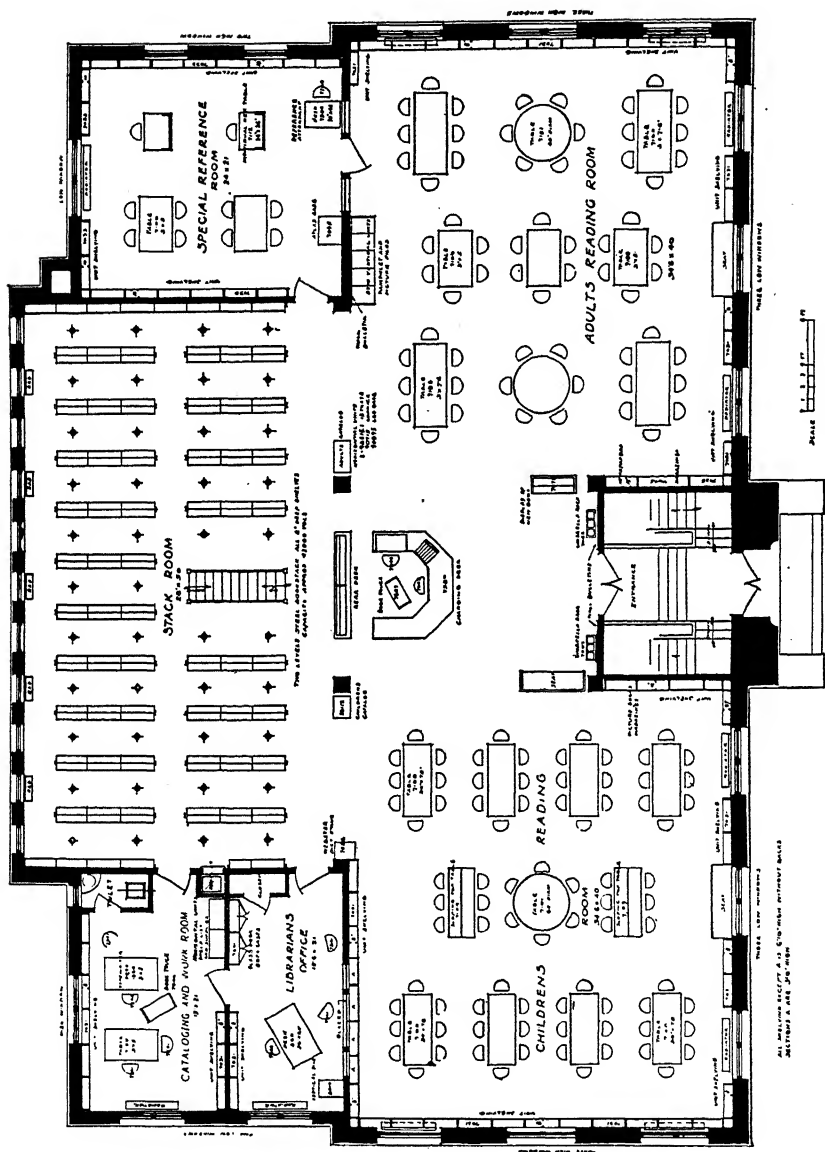


Fig. 16.—American Medium City Library (Section 174).

for book-storage. It usually has separate rooms for special collections (such as the Shakespeare Collection at Birmingham, the Henry Watson Music Collection at Manchester, the Burns library at Glasgow, and the Hornby library at Liverpool) and for periodicals, maps, local material and so on. Larger libraries provide carrels or small studies where readers pursuing continuous work with books can be accommodated; Manchester has several such in the new Central Library. Affiliated with the reference library, but usually housed separately, are commercial libraries, technical libraries and similar collections. In some towns, where the night population is small, lending libraries were formerly provided only at the branches, but almost all central libraries have them, although Glasgow is a distinguished exception. Children's departments also may or may not be provided at the central library. A lecture room or rooms is a necessity in almost every modern library building. Somewhere, too, either in the main library, or contiguous to it, there is a repository or reservoir collection of books which can be made available at any library in the system. It will be seen that modern library economy calls for the centralization of all such activities as book-purchase, cataloguing, binding, printing, etc. The argument that in such circumstances the staffs of branch libraries do not get all-round experience is an argument for interchange of staff between the departments, not for the duplicating of activities all over a system.

164. Public Departments: Branches.—According to density of population and transport facilities, branch libraries are distributed over a city. In an evenly distributed population these are not more than a mile apart, and, where the configuration of the streets demands it, at much smaller distances. A branch library is in the first place "a relief" for the central library, a point for the distribution of books, and is mainly a lending library. In metropolitan and other large town areas branches grow large, and possess lending libraries, newsrooms, periodicals rooms, children's departments and lecture and study rooms. They do not generally possess a reference library, but are equipped with a collection of quick-reference books. Branches require a librarian's office, work-room, staff common-room, file-room, extra book-stacks, kitchen and storage space for cleaner and janitor.

165. Delivery Stations.—The above are what may be called "full" branch libraries, which are sometimes the

outcome of earlier deposit libraries in hired premises, or in shops, warehouses, institutes or schools. These deposit (or delivery) stations are supplied with books for the central

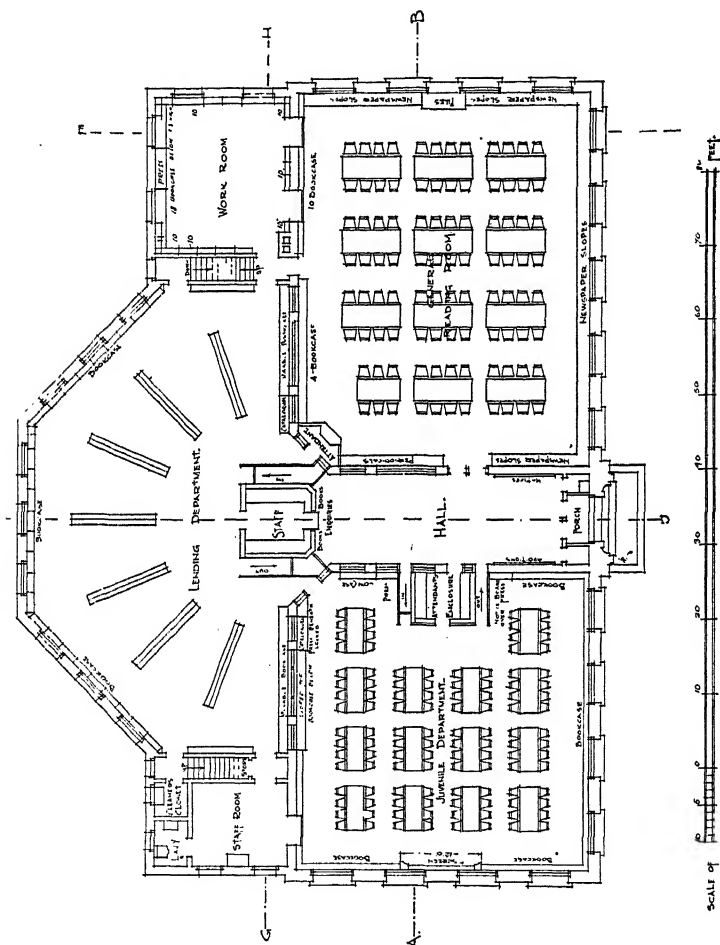


FIG. 17.—Shettleston and Tollcross Branch Library, Glasgow, Ground Floor Plan (Section 174).

depository which are changed at frequent intervals. Such deposits are invaluable in new town areas and serve to meet the demand while the population is too thinly planted to justify a full branch.

166. Motor Book Service.—The development of motor transport has simplified the library problem for many towns,

HENDON E. CENTRAL LIBRARY

—FIRST FLOOR PLAN—

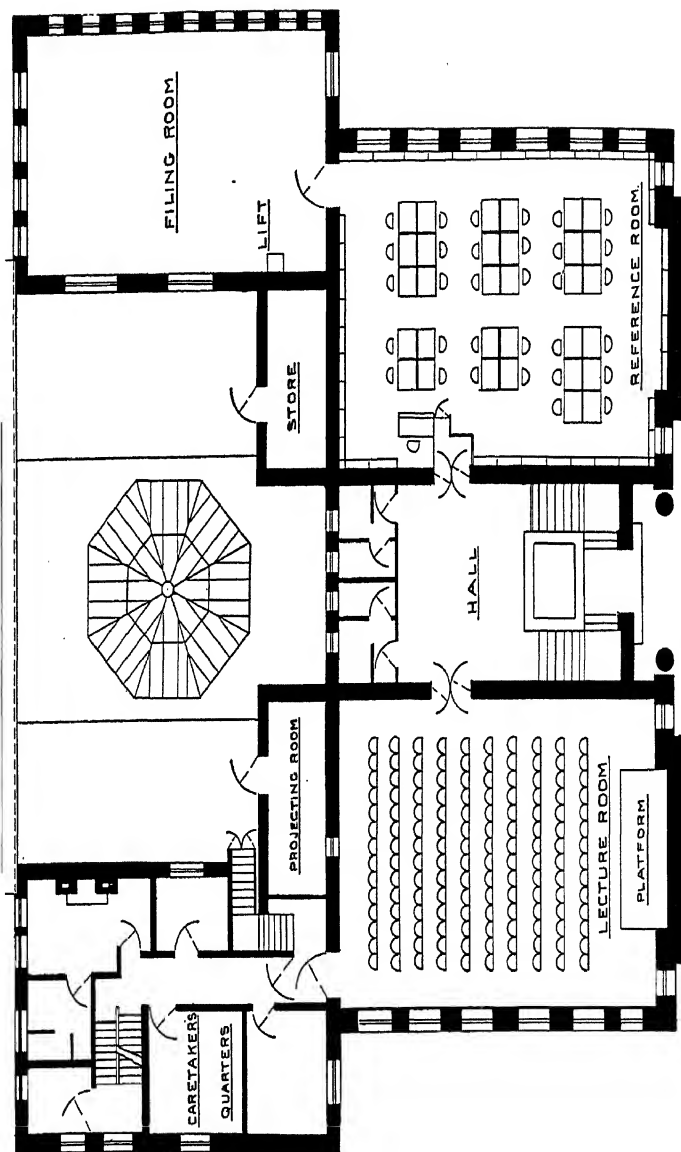
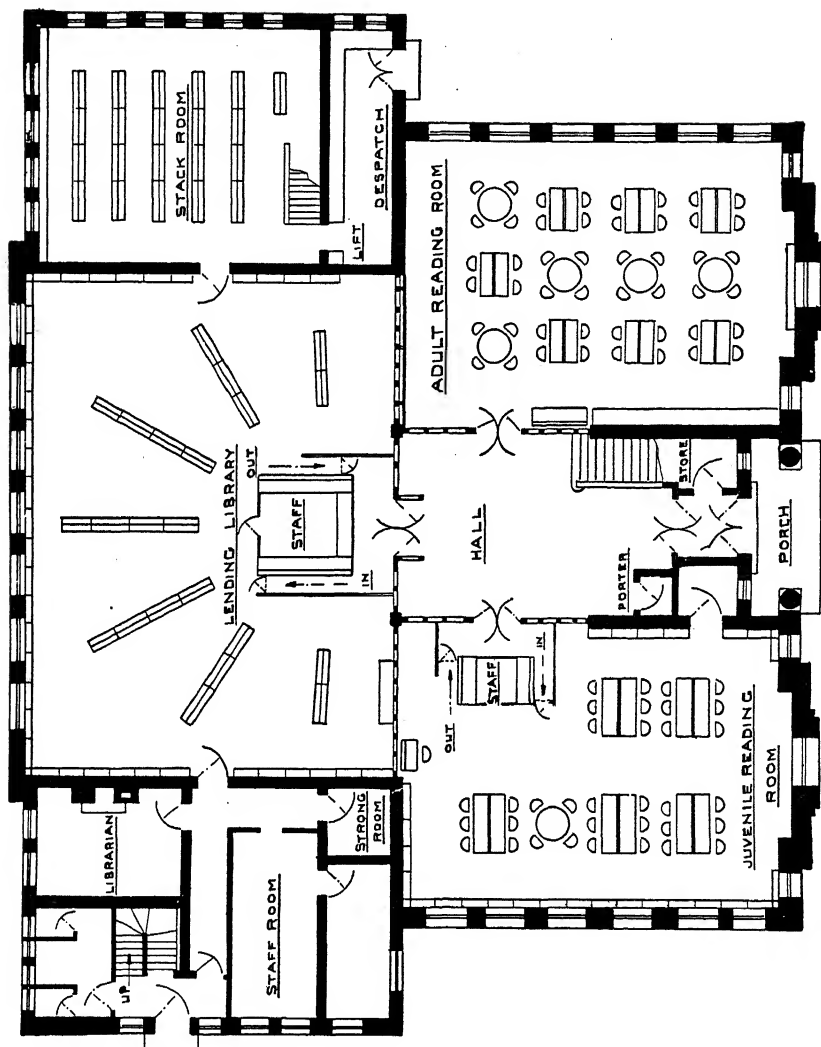


FIG. 18.



—GROUND FLOOR PLAN—

FIG. 18-18A.—Hendon Central Public Library (Section 174).

and enabled them to realize the ideal that the library is a unit with many points of service. The telephone, too, has been of great value in this unifying work, and is now indispensable in every library of whatever size. Large cities for some years past have had a motor service running twice or thrice daily round the library system, distributing and redistributing books which belong to this library and have been returned to that, and bringing books which have been telephoned for from other libraries or from the repository. Smaller towns are now following suit. A further use of the motor is that it may be fitted with shelves and sides that open and so form a travelling library, which may stand in the streets of outlying areas and so bring at regular times a small branch library to people out of touch with a permanent library. This, of course, is the modern method by which county libraries reach thinly-populated districts.

167. Library systems on the scale just outlined exist only in a score of towns in the British Isles and form a relatively small percentage of libraries anywhere. The average town has several of the features of the largest libraries including delivery stations and school libraries but there are necessarily all degrees of size and activities according to the population to be served and the money it is willing to spend on libraries. In all, however, provision must be made for adequate service, and all the rules enumerated in Section 160 apply.

In summary the main points to be aimed at in library planning are good light, convenient access to rooms, a fair amount of oversight, and the arrangement of departments so as to secure quiet in the principal reading rooms. For this last reason the reference library should be put farthest away from both newsroom and lending library, so that the traffic of these departments will not disturb readers. In small libraries it is best and most convenient to keep the whole of the departments on one floor, obtaining light, if necessary, from the roof.

168. Walls, Floors and Ceilings.—The treatment of walls, floors and ceilings is of importance in library design, and within the past few years much attention has been focussed upon these. Outer walls, either in permanent buildings or in temporary ones, should be as sound-resisting as possible and both shock proof and fireproof. There are sound-resisting materials which can be applied to walls and floors, and these should be used. Especially are they necessary for the floors of galleries, to which there is access by staff or public, running

around rooms. By shock-proof we mean that flexibility (or it may be solidity on the contrary) should exist which enables the building to stand the vibration of modern traffic. The

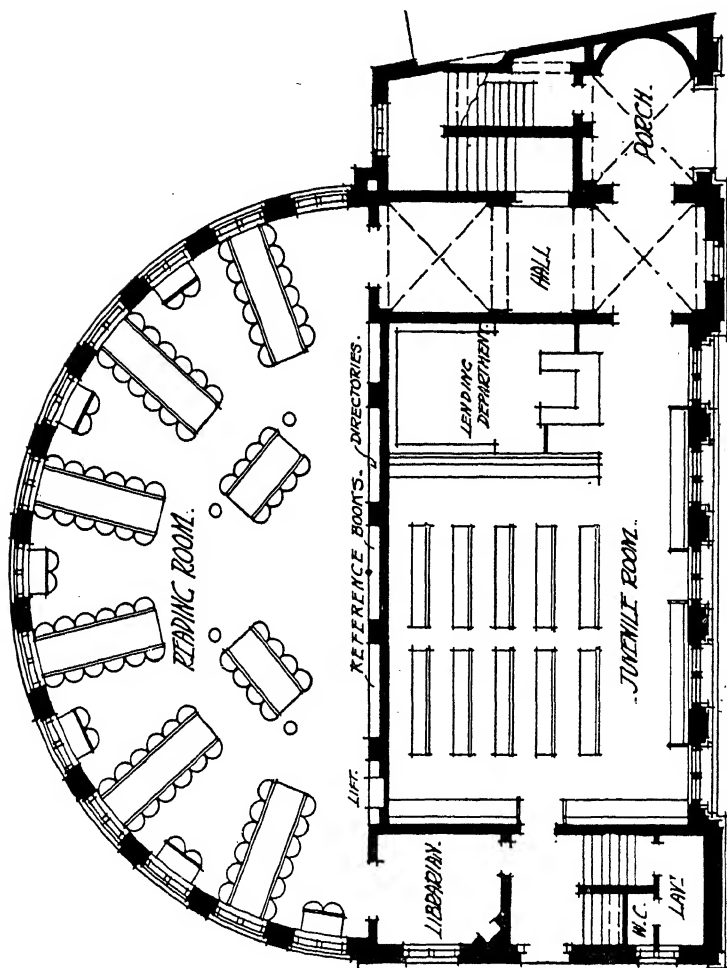


FIG. 19.—North Branch Library, Islington, Ground Floor Plan (Section 174).

decoration of walls should be simple, but with every effort to avoid institutionalism ; colours chosen with care are of course admissible, as indeed are frescoes and other mural decorations which, as has been shown elsewhere, will not become themselves objects for which a library is visited. Large plain wall-spaces

may be broken by occasional pictures, but these should be few, and be chosen by experts in relation to the rooms and their purpose. Ceilings are often equipped with lay-lights

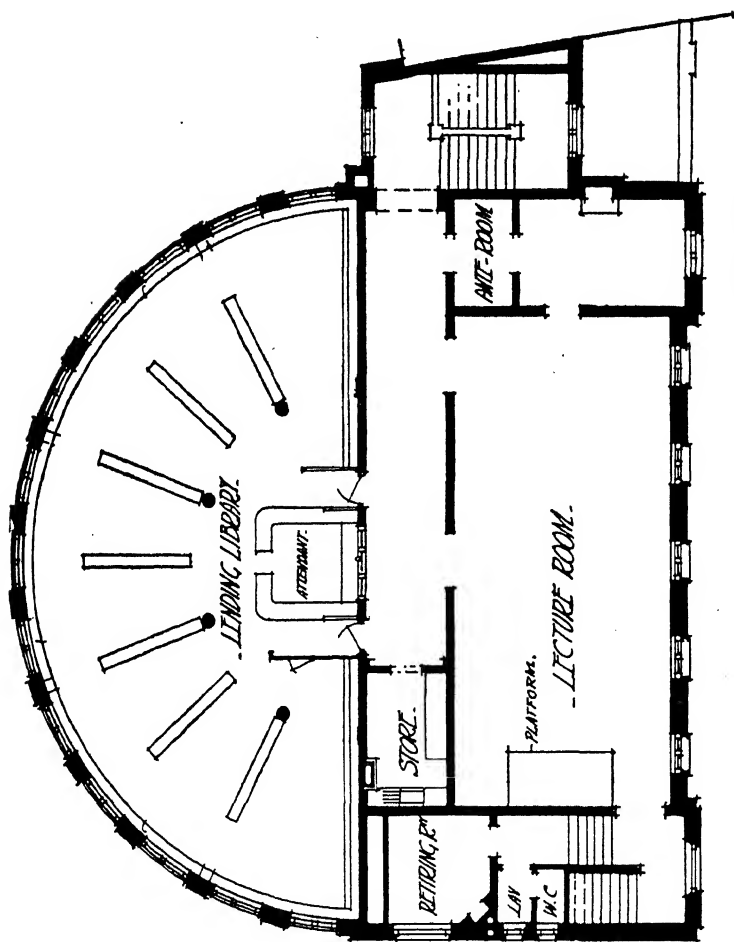


FIG. 20.—North Branch Library, Islington First Floor Plan (Section 174).

having symbolical devices in stained glass and so on, and windows are sometimes filled with stained glass producing a dim religious light rather than the full illumination which is desirable. Floor materials are many; entrances and stairways may, of course, be of some stone or marble or tessellated material,

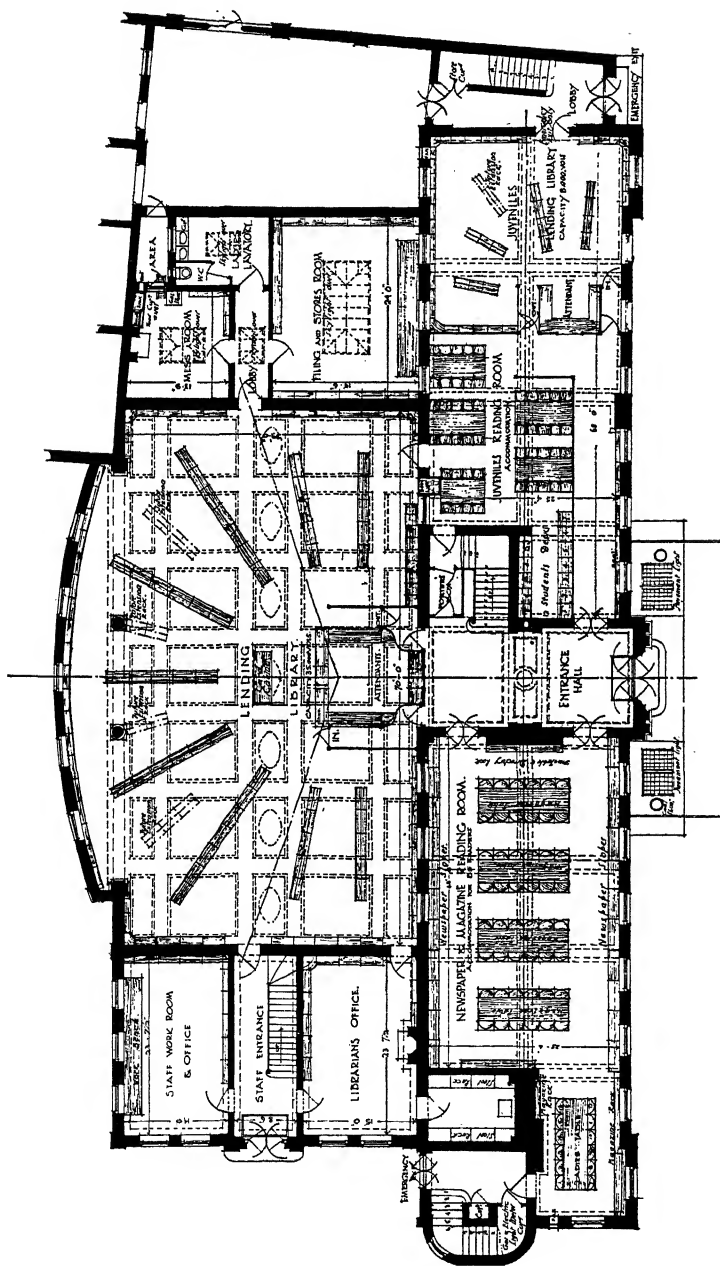


FIG. 21.—Bethnal Green Library, Ground Floor Plan (Section 174).

but interior floorings should be of resilient, quiet materials. Rubber tiles, if laid carefully on quite dry foundations, are noiseless, as are cork-carpetings, but these are expensive and usually oak, maple or other wood blocks are used. Where reading and lending activities are in one room, as happens in some of the small new libraries, rubber or cork seems to be desirable. It is impossible to dogmatize upon any of these things, although some, intoxicated with their own schemes, have been inclined to do so. If it is remembered that what is desired is a building which shall be in good taste, attractive, comfortable, and conducive to reading, and that experts are required to secure these things, the results will be satisfactory. Every generation, every decade indeed, produces its own fashion in these matters.

169. Artificial Lighting.—Natural lighting we assume to be good in all public rooms and offices where people have to work continuously. Artificial lighting is often adequate for stockrooms and other storage departments. The lighting of the library as a whole is a problem of some magnitude; the puzzle that exists for the illuminating engineer is to light rooms generally, to provide a strong illumination at fixed points on reading tables and desks, and, most difficult of all, to light evenly the vertical book-cases. Here, again, standards change with the continuous development of the lighting art, and here can be given only suggestions from the experience of the moment, to be verified and amended with newer experience. In reading rooms the best kind of lighting is that which is sufficient, is without glare and is so arranged that there are no shadows. The most expensive but most efficient manner of doing this is by indirect lighting, in which the lamps hidden in the cornices throw light up to the ceiling, from which it is reflected downward. Semi-direct light is a substitute, the light here being thrown upwards from a bowl suspended from the ceiling, which again reflects downwards, but the light also comes directly downward through the bowl. Such bowls have more recently assumed the globular shapes, the light being diffused in all directions through its opal substance. There are other variants, of course, the point of them being the careful employment of the reflecting surfaces of ceilings, and, to a lesser degree, walls. The lighting of reading tables in reference rooms demands a strong illumination which can be switched on and off by the reader and again shall be free from glare; the very minimum illumination on the table being five foot candles.

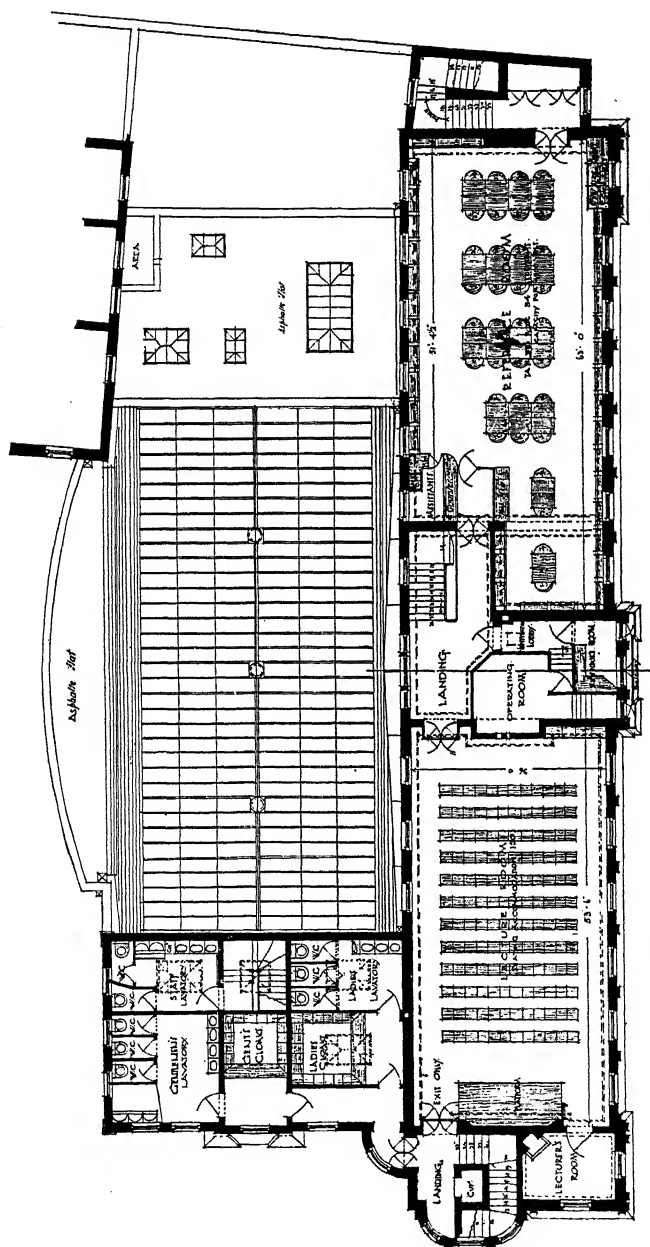


FIG. 22.—Bethnal Green Library, First Floor Plan (Section 174).

Dr. Warner Bishop has devised a lamp for tables that are divided in the centre, whereby in a two-sided, roof-shaped cover, inside mirrors enable a single lamp to light both sides of the table equally ; this has had several imitations, and the lighting of Manchester Reference Library resembles it. Usually protection from glare is obtained by using green or other dark shades. In lending libraries, which consist of several gangways of shelves, strong general lighting is sometimes adequate if the minimum light that falls on any book is two foot candles. A good gangway system is obtained by the use of Snead Stack Light Reflectors, of white enamelled steel, which have perforations for lighting top shelves and concentrate light on lower ones while keeping the lamp shaded from the person walking along the gangway. This lighting is admirable for stack-rooms. Card catalogues, newspaper stands and similar close reading points need individual lights of at least five foot candles and carefully shaded. All the lighting mentioned is, of course, by electricity. In working out a scheme the possibilities of cornices, tilted shelves and sloping cabinets must be borne in mind, and the opportunities offered by modern "artificial daylight," or "restlight," and by panel-lighting should be investigated ; these are rather expensive at present, but the tendency is for lighting to become less so. For the beginner it may be explained that a "foot candle" means the amount of light that reaches the reading surface at a distance of one foot from the lamp ; and, in summary a library requires as a minimum :

For general illumination . . .	1 foot candles.
For bookshelves . . .	2 " "
For catalogue cabinets . . .	5 " "
For newspaper stands . . .	5 " "
For reading tables . . .	5 " "

170. Heating.—Open fires and fuel-burning stoves are no longer used in libraries of any size, although in little village libraries where there is no gas or electricity—although the latter grow fewer—they may be the only means readily available, and then great care must be taken to avoid fire. The problem of heating larger rooms so that an even temperature of about 65° Fahrenheit is maintained and at the same time the air is kept fresh, is not always solved. Several methods are available. The commonest is heating by hot water, or low pressure steam radiators, raised by the use of coke, anthracite

or some similar fuel from a central boiler. If this is done in larger libraries, double boilers, each with its own flue, are recommended, as this allows heating to be continued in the event of repairs to the boiler. To-day the library is offered also a choice of electricity, gas or oil, and for smaller libraries especially these have the advantage that they are cleanly, have no odour or fumes and require little or no attention ; while therefore the fuel costs may be larger the labour costs may be

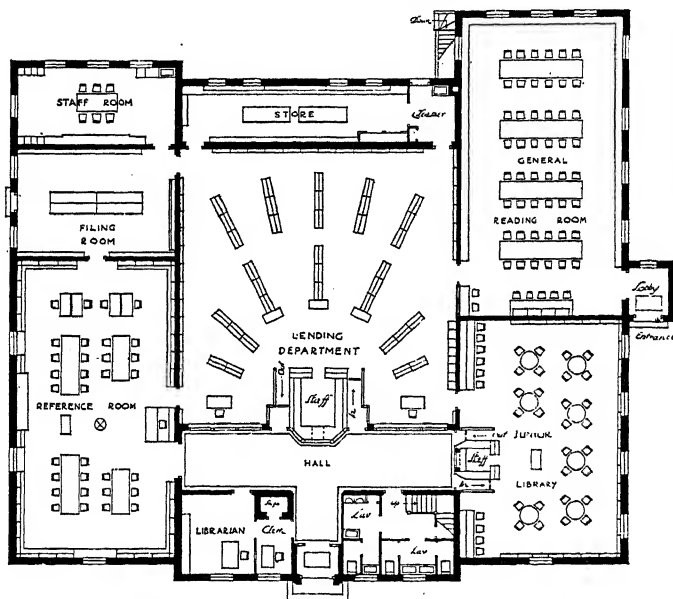


FIG. 23.—Watford Public Library, Ground Floor Plan (Section 175).

smaller, and all three methods have been brought to complete efficiency. A much-favoured form of heating is the electrically-heated panel, automatically controlled, but it is costly ; and another form of panel heating, low pressure hot water, generated by oil fuel has been found effective. Boiler rooms should be well ventilated, and this is specially necessary where anthracite and coke or other stove fuels are used, as there is danger from monoxide gas poisoning.

171. Ventilation.—For the layman, ventilation, like acoustics, is the most difficult of all subjects. A good building may get much of its ventilation from windows which open in such manner as to admit ample fresh air while excluding direct

draughts and much attention should be paid to this. Ventilating systems are many, from the large air-conditioning plants used in great buildings; for example in Broadcasting House, and in the Royal Institute of British Architects every unit of air that enters is washed electrically; but such methods are not available for the average library yet, although they may be within a generation. For our purpose it is enough to say that this question is one of immense importance in libraries; one of the main criticisms brought against them is that they are stuffy, and it is a physiological fact that mental weariness and fatigue are induced more quickly by bad air than by almost any other cause.

172. Building Specification and Contracts.—The specification for the building on which builders are required to tender will be prepared by the architect, and it is usual in most cases to have the quantities abstracted by a surveyor, so that contractors can all tender for the same thing. The surveyor's fee, 1 per cent. to 1½ per cent., according to the total amount, is usually included in the specification, as are also allowances for other extras, such as foundation-stones, memorial tablets, and such items as presentation trowels, etc., if a foundation-stone laying is made a public ceremony.

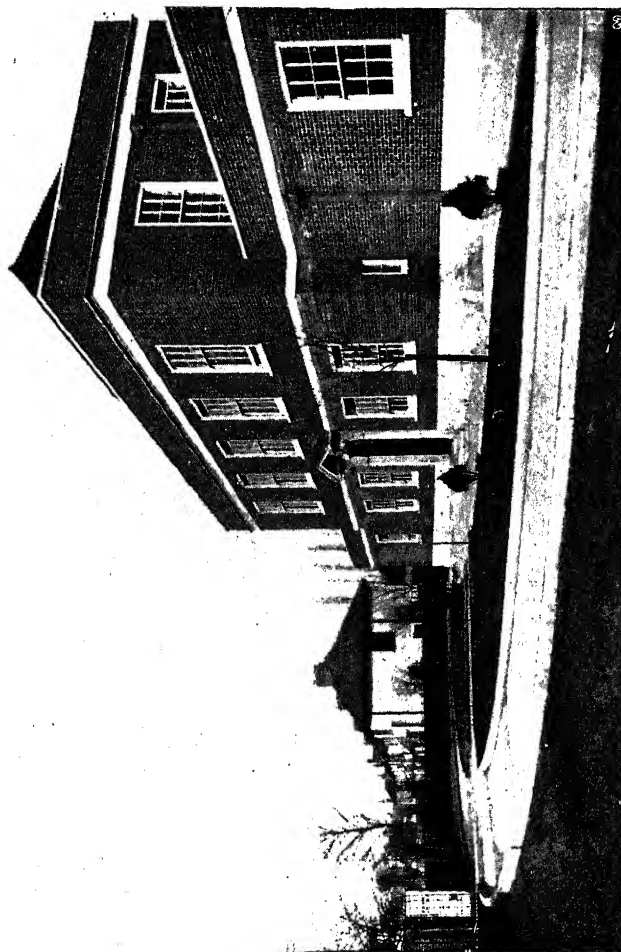
The contract for the building may be publicly advertised or may be confined to a few selected firms, and the tenders should, when received, be opened at a meeting of the library authority, to which the firms who tender may be invited. When a contract is accepted and signed it should contain a clause specifying that all extras must be sanctioned by the library authority before being put in hand, and must be certified by the architect when completed. It is well to avoid extras by making a careful estimate in advance, but if they are supplied, great precaution must be used to see that they are limited and strictly watched.

A clerk of works must be appointed to watch over the building operations on behalf of the library authority and the architect, and it is a wise and most economical policy to pay for a first-rate man.

The architect's fee is 5 per cent. on the total cost of the building, including extras and all furniture or other fittings which he may design.

173. Opening Ceremony, Etc.—There are certain ceremonial matters connected with the laying of foundation-stones, unveiling of memorial stones or brasses and opening ceremonies,

which each locality must arrange to suit its own needs. An opening ceremony of a public character is always so useful in making known a library that it ought when possible to be



[Gregg Couper & Co.]

FIG. 24.—Watford Public Library (Section 175).

arranged. It need not be an expensive function, and if an eminent public personage, local or otherwise, can be secured to perform the ceremony, so much the better. It is a doubtful point whether the expense of an opening ceremony can be

defrayed from the library rate. In districts where the expenditure is audited by a Government auditor, a moderate sum may be passed, with the caution not to incur such charge again, but it is dangerous to assume that this expenditure will always be allowed, and it should be confined to printing and other expenses.

174. The illustrations and plans we reproduce show many of the points under discussion. Fig. 1, the Manchester Central Library, is the largest of English municipal libraries, while Figs. 2 and 15 show the exterior and ground floor plan of the Mitchell Library, Glasgow, its nearest rival and the largest library in Scotland. Of the latter only the ground floor plan is given, but the building (as in this particular does Manchester), consists of four floors, the great reading room running as a core up through them all. It is entirely a reference library with large auxiliary rooms for special collections, periodicals, and special students' and ladies' rooms, and in the basement and at the back of the building are great stack rooms. (The lending libraries at Glasgow are dealt with in a separate building.) Fig. 3 shows another recent city library of large scale, that of Sheffield, one of the finest recent libraries. In Fig. 17 we have another Glasgow library, the Shettleston and Tollcross *Branch* Library, which was selected by the Government Public Libraries Report as of special merit. It is suitable for a central library, except that it does not possess extra book stack accommodation, and has no lecture room, although the children's room could, no doubt, be used for lectures; if it were adopted for a central library more staff accommodation would be necessary. This excellent plan may be brought into comparison with Fig. 16, a typical American plan for a medium city library which has been chosen for us by the American Library Association. The Hendon Central Library (Fig. 18), which was opened in 1929, is a practical building, but more expensive to work because on two floors. With these very modern examples may be compared the plans by James Duff Brown for his library at Islington (Figs. 19, 20), which are over thirty years old, but still represent some of the best features of planning, and those of Bethnal Green (Figs. 21, 22), which show an excellent example of a former hospital successfully adapted.

175. The small town library has been the main problem of recent planning. Suburbs and small towns are frequently in process of growth, and at the beginning of the library service may be far smaller than they will be in a few years. Where

the motor-van library is thought not to be the best method of serving such places, it would be well if experimental buildings

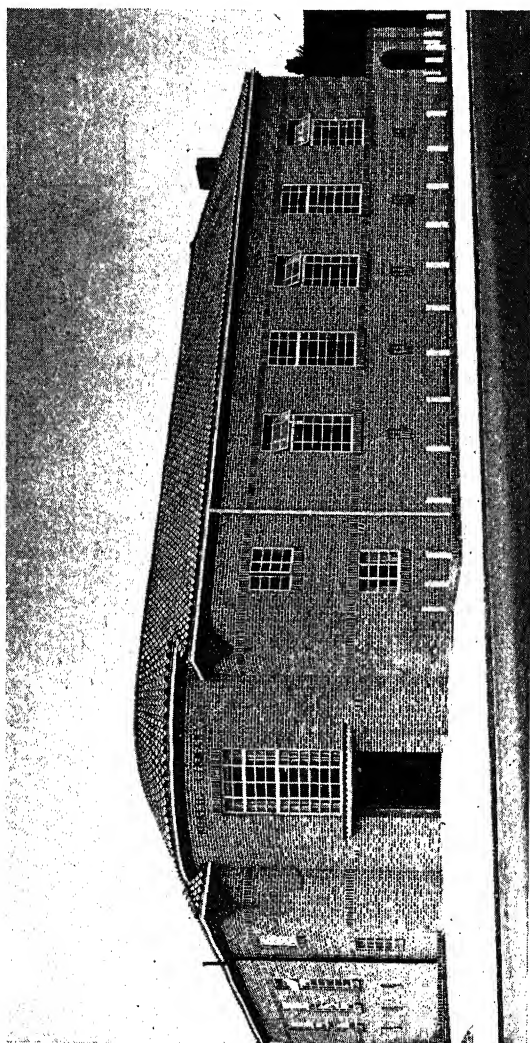
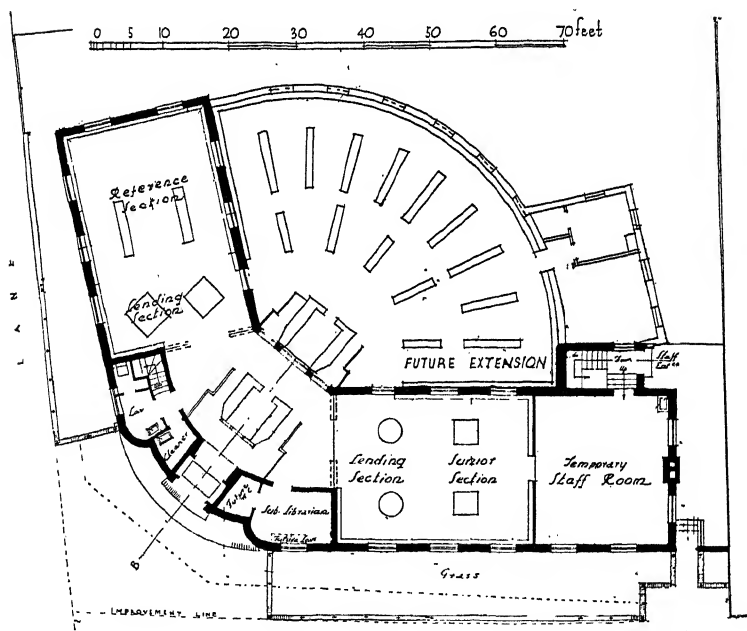
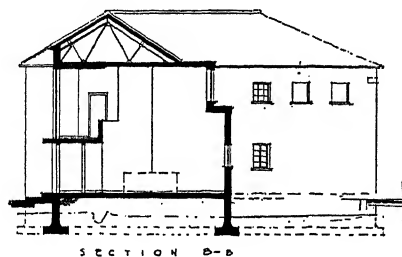


FIG. 25.—Coulsdon Library—Coulsdon and Purley (Section 175).
[Architect & Building News.]

could be tried of temporary character. These could be erected cheaply, part at a time if necessary, and added to as shelves are added to a unit bookcase ; and in them the service could

be given until the area was sufficiently built up to enable its stable library needs to be gauged. The permanent building that would follow would be more likely to be right than are



[Architect & Building News.

FIG. 26.—Coulsdon Library—Plan, showing possible extension (Section 175).

many of the so-called permanent buildings that have come down to us, for our perpetual irritation because they are not efficient for modern service and are "too good" to be demolished. The experimental building can be permanent, if there are objections to temporary materials, but should be on a site

which will allow expansion, and should be designed for this end. Really attractive examples of libraries where the activities are all

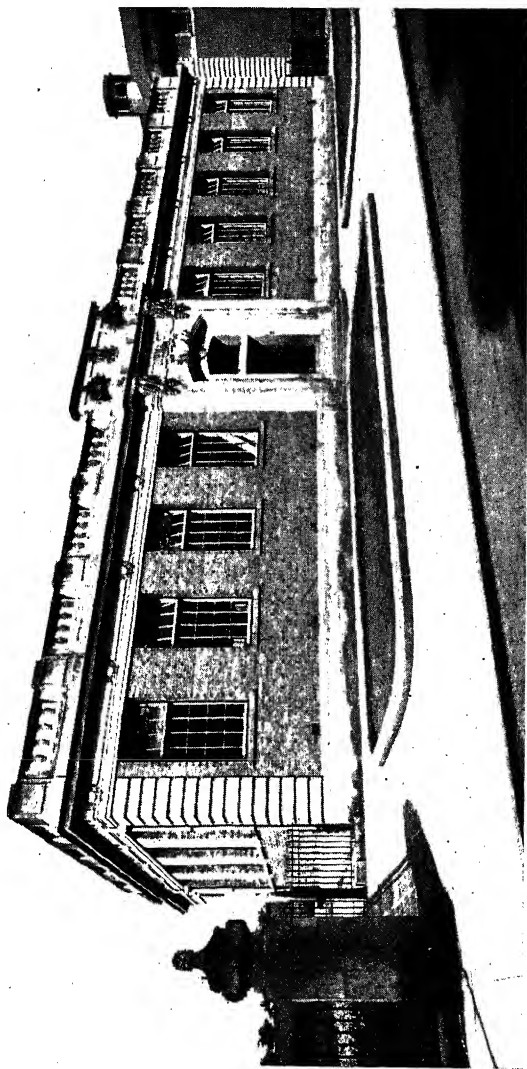


FIG. 27.—Shettleston and Tollcross Branch Library, Glasgow (Section 174).

carried on in one room and where extension when it is necessary is contemplated are to be seen at Halifax, at Sea Mills

branch, Bristol (Figs. 175-176), and the Coulsdon and Sanderstead branches (Figs. 25-26 and 29-30) of the Coulsdon and Purley libraries. The Coulsdon plan shows how the new wings of the library have been built, and that it is intended to fill the space between later. These cost relatively little, are

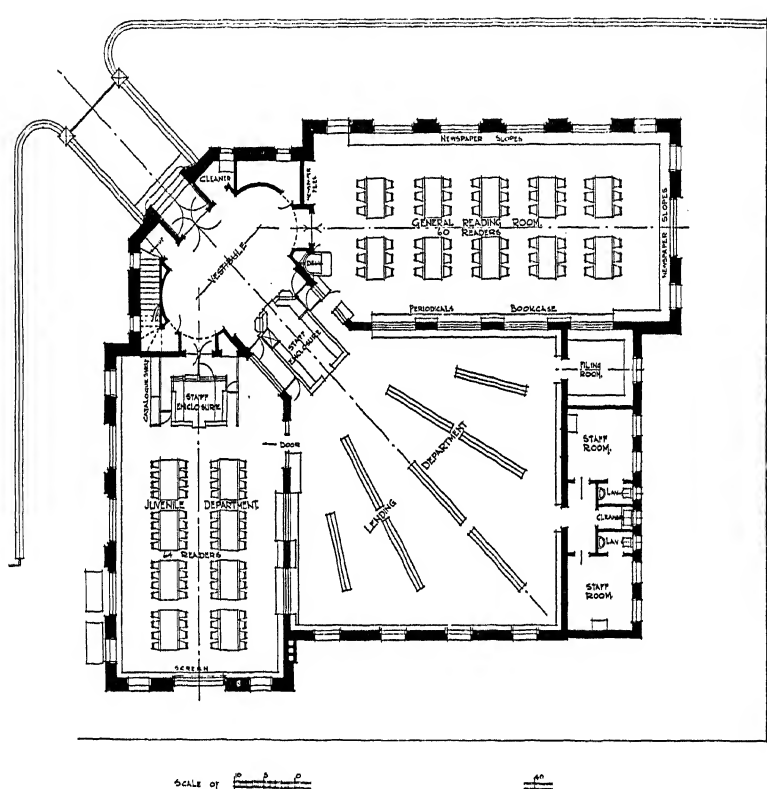


FIG. 28.—Whiteinch Branch Library, Glasgow. Ground Floor Plan (Section 177).

economical to maintain, look well, and give most useful service. Of the rather larger small town libraries there are admirable examples at Grantham and Yeovil, and Watford is a good example, the plan and the severe but effective façade of which are given (Figs. 23, 24). Examples worth special study are the Golders Green Branch at Hendon, the Purley Central Library and the Norbury Library at Croydon amongst many more. The Leytonstone branch of the Leyton Libraries is

also worth note as an adequate library which has been obtained by building a shop block, letting the lower floor to traders, and using the greater part of the first floor for the library. By these means a larger library than is usual has been obtained at a

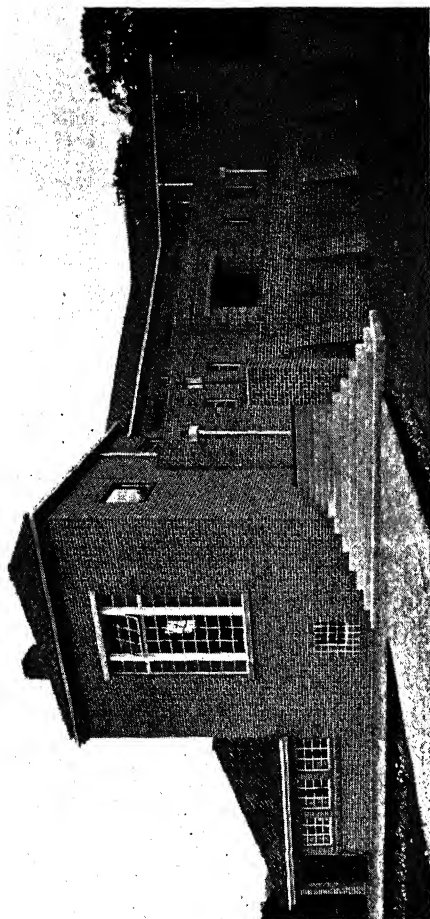
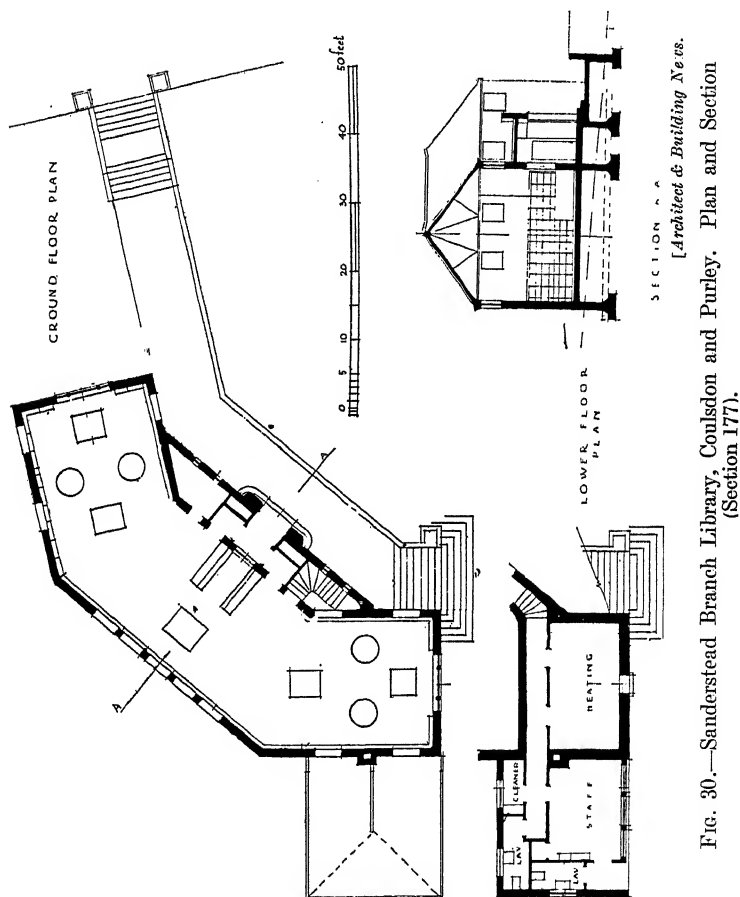


FIG. 29.—The Sanderstead Branch Library, Coulsdon and Purley (Section 177).
[*Architect & Building News.*]

much smaller cost. We have not thought it desirable to include the façades of ordinary British public libraries in general.

176. The question of central library plans need not be pursued further here, since it is dealt with fully and admirably in the books listed at the end of this chapter. The remarkable

new city library at Stockholm is worth study, and illustrations of it are given in Yerbury's *Modern European Buildings*, 1928. The most recent developments in great library planning in America can best be studied in *The Library Journal*, in the



plans and illustrations of Cleveland (1925, pp. 491-2, 943-48), Los Angeles (1926, pp. 121-24, 663-66), which cost \$2,500,000, and, latest in time, Philadelphia (1927, pp. 633-39), which cost \$7,000,000. Mr. L. Stanley Jast has given his theory in *The Planning of a Great Library*, 1927, the original feature of which is to stretch the reading rooms over a large basement stack in order to secure the closest relation between them.

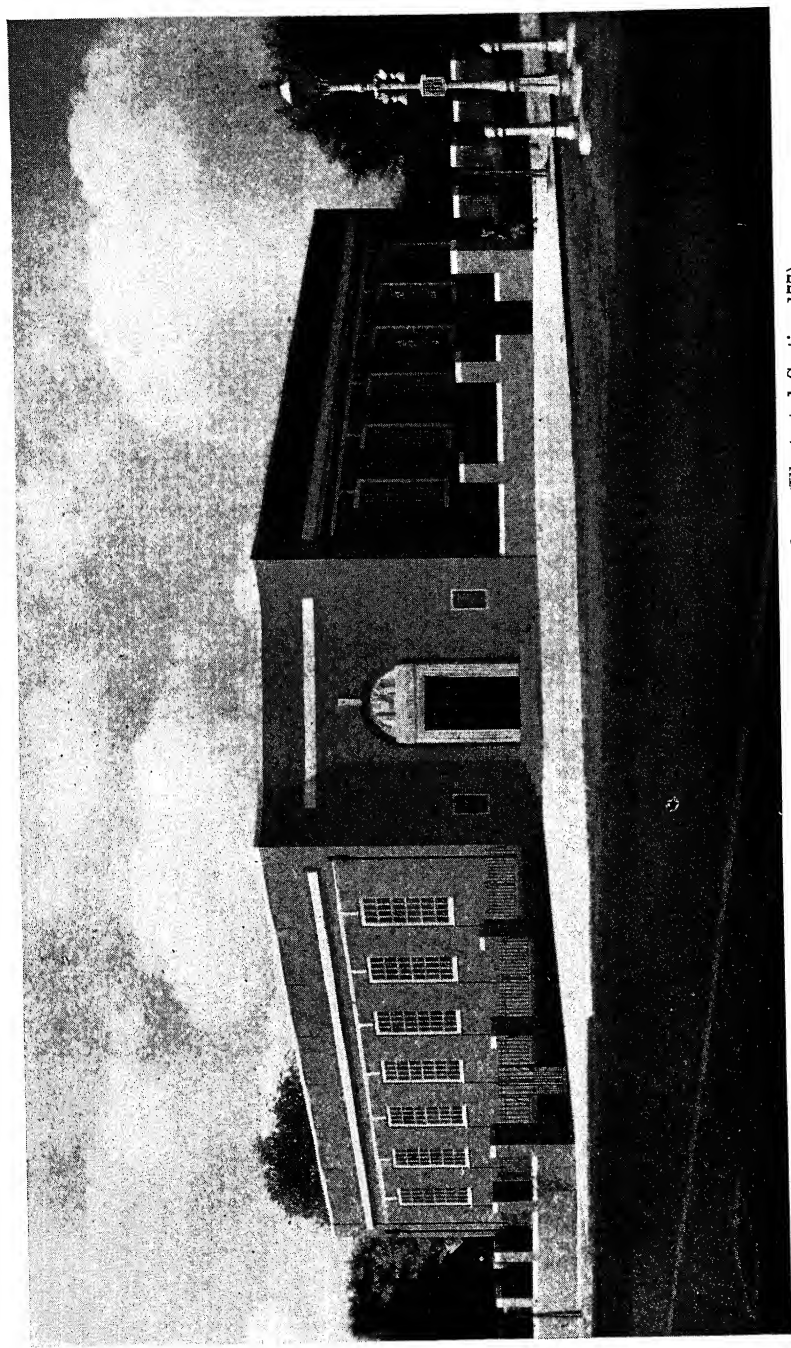


FIG. 31.—The Perry Common Branch Library, Birmingham (Illustrated Section 177).

The latest non-municipal libraries completed in England are those of the University of Cambridge, an illustration and plans of which were published in *The Library Association Record* (1930, p. 146), and the Brotherton Library of the University of Leeds. (*Ibid.*, 1936, p. 501.)

177. Plans for branch libraries differ in kind as well as in size from central libraries. They do not require more than one or two workrooms, seeing that administrative work is generally done at the central libraries ; and they do not contain reference departments other than relatively small collections of from 100 to 1,000 quick-reference books. This will be returned to later, but a few plans will illustrate some of the best recent types. The Shettleston plan already mentioned has probably not been excelled for a square site, and it may be pointed out that the North Library, Islington, is a branch library although it is suitable in most features for a central library. Some of the best modern branches may be studied at Withington, Manchester, and Compton Road, Leeds. These, like the two plans we show, occupy—as branch libraries frequently must—corner sites which are most difficult to treat effectively. The Whiteinch Branch at Glasgow (Fig. 28) shows a most successful result with the entrance from the corner, a plan which is shown in reverse on a smaller scale in the Sanderstead plan (Fig. 30).

178. New types of library have been evolved by the county library system. These are the headquarters, which are mainly a book-store with administrative rooms attached ; and the very small town county branch library, which is somewhat smaller than any hitherto dealt with in this book. These are appropriately dealt with in Chapter XXXV.

179.

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CHAPTER X

FIXTURES AND FITTINGS

180. The internal fittings of the library depend upon the size and character of the building and the system by which it is to be worked. The smallest library will be a one-room building so far as the public is concerned and the only divisions in it will be made by the shelves and the furniture. As the library increases in size, so does it in complexity ; in the largest there will be all the rooms set out in the various plans given in the previous chapter, and it is assumed that these will have staff to supervise them. In what may be called the intermediate library with a modest staff, the ground plan of a one-apartment library is still desirable, the divisions being made by glazed screens which allow every room to be overlooked from a central counter or other occupied observation point. These are fixtures and may be regarded as forming part of the building contract ; and as many fixtures as possible should be included, because, where the building is by loan, the duration of the loan for the structure is thirty years as against only ten for that for furniture, and in the spread-over of re-payments the difference may be substantial.

181. Briefly, then, as part of the permanent structure, the following may be included : screens of glass and wood dividing the interior ; service counters or other barriers which stand between readers and the shelves ; shelves where these are built in or attached to the walls, and such window show-cases as may be seen in Leeds and elsewhere, built-in notice boards, and hand rails protecting stairways,—amongst other things. The aim should be to be as inclusive as possible.

182. Counters and Barriers.—Open access is universal to a part of the shelves of every important lending library and to most of it in smaller ones. Theory would assume that the readers should reach the shelf without any barrier intervening, and in America there are few, if any, counters with “ in ” and “ out ” wickets, and the charging and discharging of books are done at a desk which may be in the middle of the lending

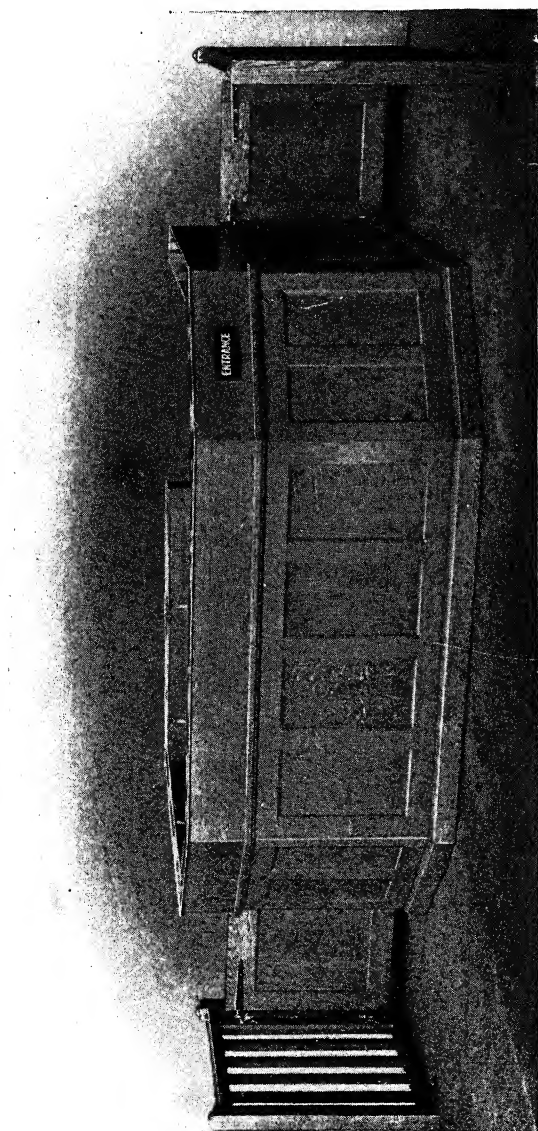


FIG. 32.—A Staff Enclosure, with Wickets, seen from Public Side (Sections 182-183).

library or even outside of it. Several libraries of late have certainly dispensed with wickets, without ill results, but even in these a railed gangway of sorts causes readers to form a queue in order to pass the discharging point as they enter ;

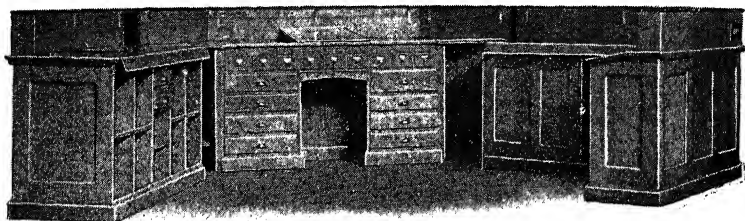


FIG. 32A.—A Staff Enclosure seen from the Staff Side (Sections 182-183). [*Libraco.*

and whether wickets are necessary or not depends in a measure upon the kind of people served, the number of staff, and the incidence of rush times. Counters as they commonly exist were the result of early experience with open shelves and large book losses, and it was not until James Duff Brown introduced

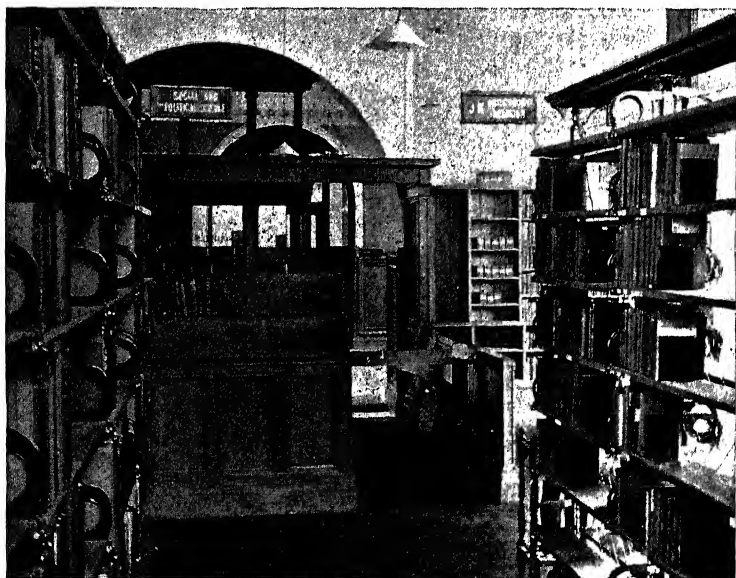


FIG. 33.—View of Part of Staff Counter, showing Gibbet Wicket (Section 184).

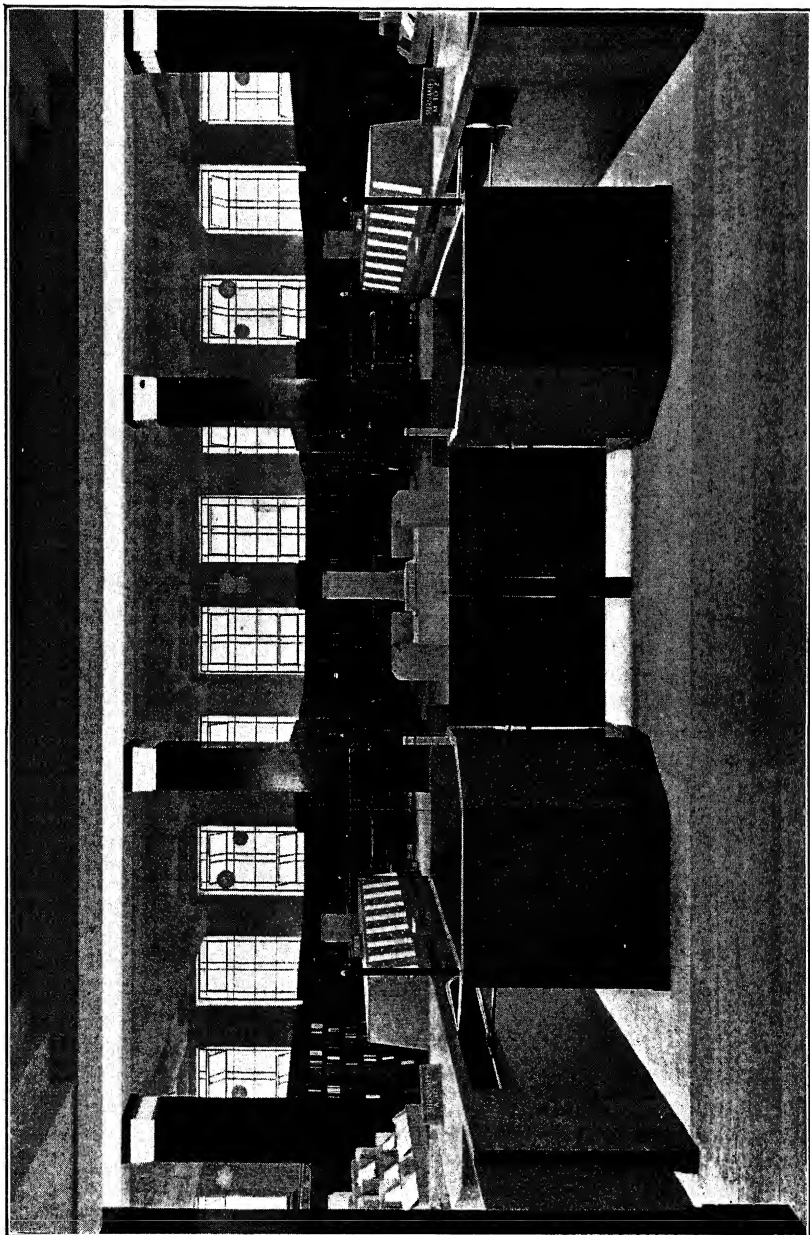


FIG. 34.—The Central Lending Library, Sheffield, showing Entrance, Turnstiles and Exit (Section 185).

the wicket in what he called "safe-guarded open access" in 1893, that readers were admitted without reserve; but, then, the principle was that the reader was locked out until he had produced his book or ticket, and was locked in until his book was charged or he declared that he would not borrow a book. Perhaps public morality in this matter has improved, but experience without wickets on a sufficient scale to prove or disprove the suggestion is not available yet. It is a primary responsibility of the librarian to protect the public property which is placed in his charge; and for this no better device than a counter with wickets exists.

183. A counter is also a charging desk as a rule, and it consists of counter space to hold the trays of the charging system, which may be according to one of the methods described in Chapter XXV. It should have surfaces at least eighteen inches wide and its height from the floor should be not more than thirty-two inches. For the "in" part of the counter a longer space is required than for the "out" part. This is because the charging trays are kept on the "in" counter. These trays are two and a half inches wide, eighteen inches long, and each holds about three hundred charges. It can therefore be calculated that the minimum counter length to hold the charges for a library where 20,000 books are in circulation at a time is sixty-six inches, but larger space will be required for various operations connected with the issue. On the exit side, while the space may be the same, it is occupied with the sorting tray which holds the charges as they are made. The size of the counter space will depend upon the use to which the counter is put. In some libraries the counter is in a small separate room outside the lending library, and here all the work of charging and discharging is done, the staff in the lending library being devoted to the shelves and to the reading wants of borrowers. Other libraries have large counters which are equipped with desks, shelves and other conveniences for clerical and other library duties; the counter is in part a workshop. This system is not in general favour, as it is felt, in busy libraries especially, that assistants at the counter should give their whole attention to readers and not have it distracted by other work. In any case, the inside faces of the counter should be equipped with drawers, divided into trays for holding tickets, vouchers and stationery, and with shelves to accommodate repairs, bespoken books, a till for monies, with adjacent to it a proper receptacle for the emission of

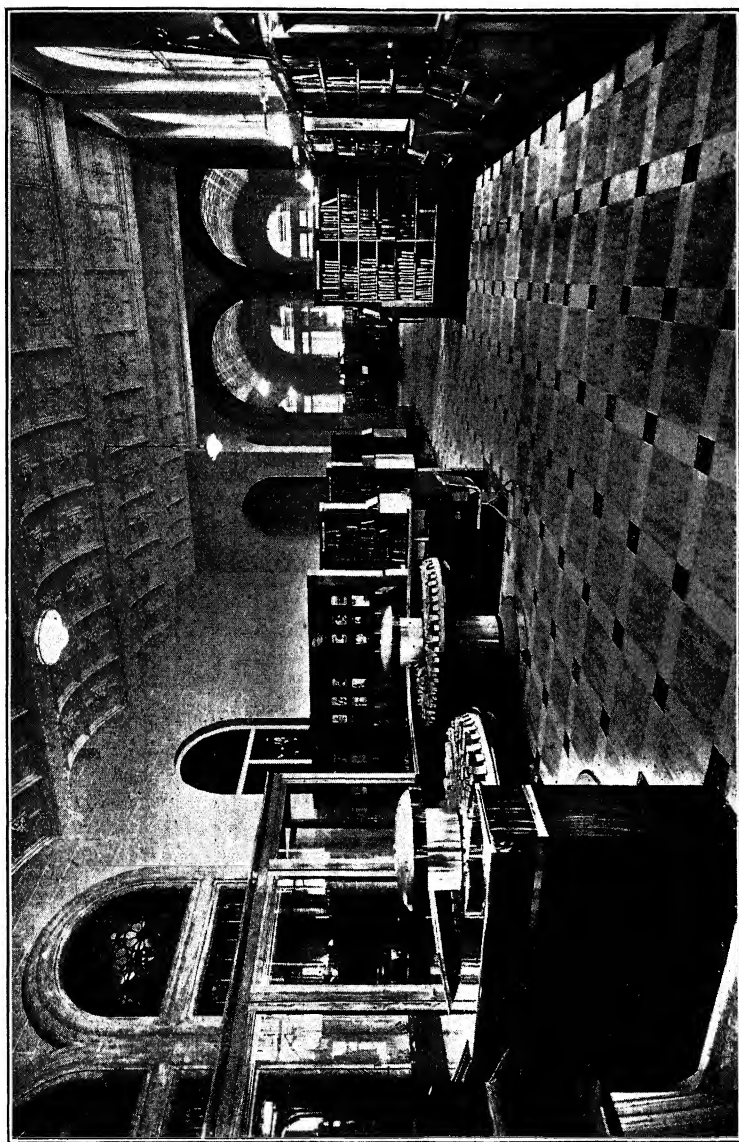


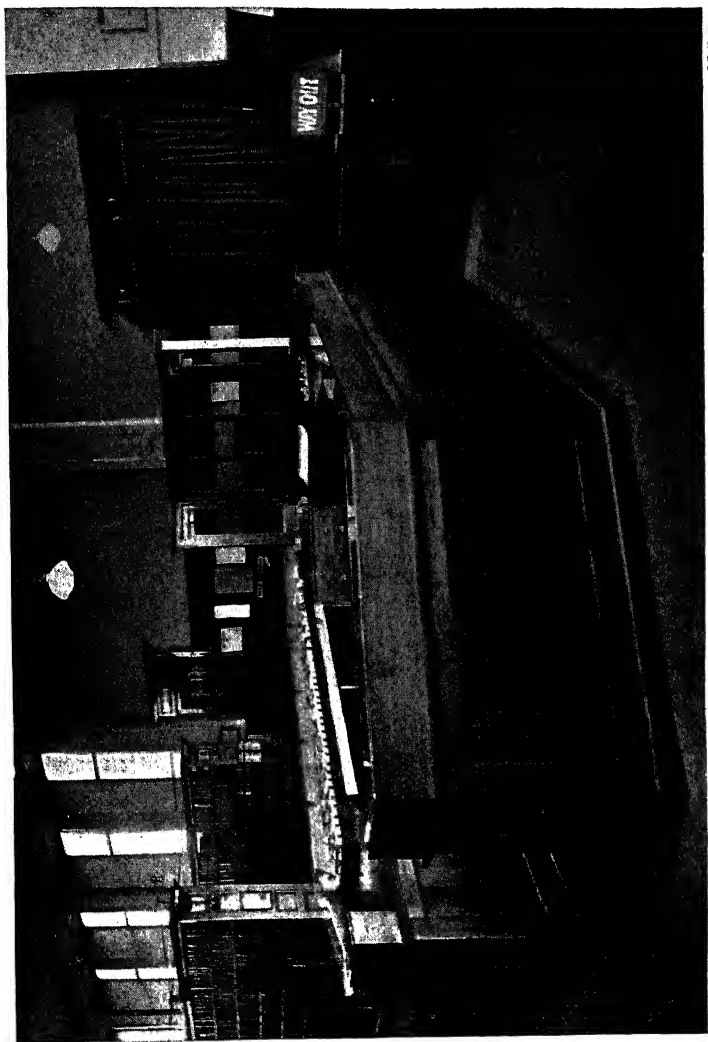
FIG. 35.—The Central Lending Library at Leeds, showing the Counter with Rotating Charging System (Section 185).
[Photo by Pickard.]

receipts, cupboards for a variety of uses including the storing of writing implements, date stamps and other devices connected with charging. The skilful disposition of these fittings is worth careful attention, as making for accuracy and rapidity of work. Usually, around the counter on the public side there is a ledge, sometimes covered with glass, to hold the books while they are being charged or discharged. On the side of the counter facing into the library there may be slopes on which returned books are placed temporarily until such time as they can be shelved. It is sometimes necessary to shield the part of the counter nearest the door from draughts. A part of the counter should be set aside for enquiries, with a notice showing that this is so.

184. Wickets.—The wicket most favoured is a light gibbet-shaped gate with an automatic lock which is released from the inside of the counter by foot or hand; in the more modern counters by a bar at waist level running along the counter below the charging trays. Lambert's wickets are the best known form (Fig. 40); various other simple treadle latches which release locked wickets have been used. The illustration (Fig. 41) is an example. To accelerate service double, and even triple wickets have been introduced with much success. The superseded Croydon plan (Fig. 38) which is obsolete in some other ways, illustrates this as does the wicket plan (Fig. 39) designed by Duff Brown.

185. A few words may be devoted to other modern attempts that have been made with varying success to increase the rapidity with which books may be discharged—which is the longer process—and charged to readers with the minimum fatigue to staff. It is worth pointing out that there is no more arduous work physically than standing for as long as four hours on end at a series of trays stretching over several feet of space, receiving books from readers, abstracting the charges from the trays, handing the tickets to the readers, replacing the book-cards in the books, and then disposing of the books; and this is the lot of many young assistants. No assistant should be expected to work in this way for so long a time, but, however that may be, efforts have been made to allow the assistant to sit down while at the charging desk. Mr. W. H. Smettem, of Scarborough, has designed a platform running on wheels in a slotted track on a long counter. This platform will carry the whole charging system of a fairly large library and it is moved to and fro in its slotted rails by means of a bar running along

the face of the platform which can be operated by the hand. The assistant can sit at the centre and readily bring any



[Library]

FIG. 36.—Open Access Library Counter, in Aberdeen Central Library (Section 185).

tray within arm's reach by a movement of the platform. By this means readers are all discharged from one point. This travelling charging system is now manufactured and marketed

by Roneo. Another form of centralised charging system has been introduced by Mr. R. J. Gordon into the Leeds Library and is shown in Fig. 35 ; here the charging trays are arranged like the spokes of a wheel on a circular platform, behind which the assistant sits, having a semi-circular counter fixed about the revolving table. By a movement of the hand he is able to bring the required tray in front of him. Libraco has recently made for a branch library at Dagenham a similar revolving charging table very suitable for a small library. In all of these mobile systems one assistant works at the discharging point at a time. In other libraries, notably at Leyton, the counter is made in semi-circular shape and the assistant sits inside the semi-circle on a revolving seat and is able to swing round to any tray required. As many of these semi-circles can be placed side by side as are required, the charging trays being divided by date or kind as may be suitable. There are many other types of counter for lending libraries which are worth study, which we have not space to describe, but that at the Central Library, Edinburgh, and at the Central Library, Sheffield (Fig. 34), where the counter space backs immediately on to the staff rooms, are particularly worthy of study, as giving ample space and rapid movement where large numbers of readers have to be served. The plan of the North Watford Library (Fig. 37) shows a proposed central counter from which both adult and junior departments are controlled.

186. Reference Library Counters.—One of the curious anomalies of the English public library is that while it may have counters and wickets for the lending library it usually has some sort of a table, desk or counter without wickets for the reference library. There are exceptions—a wicket operated by an assistant at the entrance is sometimes used, and in these cases it is merely a variant of the lending library counter. The lack of wickets may perhaps be explained as being due to the fact that fewer readers use reference libraries, and their control is much simpler. On the other hand, it may be urged that the reference book is a much more expensive one and should receive some protection. In larger reference libraries only a select collection, although this may probably number many thousands of volumes, is on open shelves, the rest of the books being in the stack. These larger libraries usually have wickets of some kind which the reader must pass. Others again, whether with or without wickets, require the reader to sign his name and address in a visitors' book

before entering the library. It will be seen therefore that it is almost impossible to lay down the kind of counter desirable in a reference library, but it should be so placed as to give

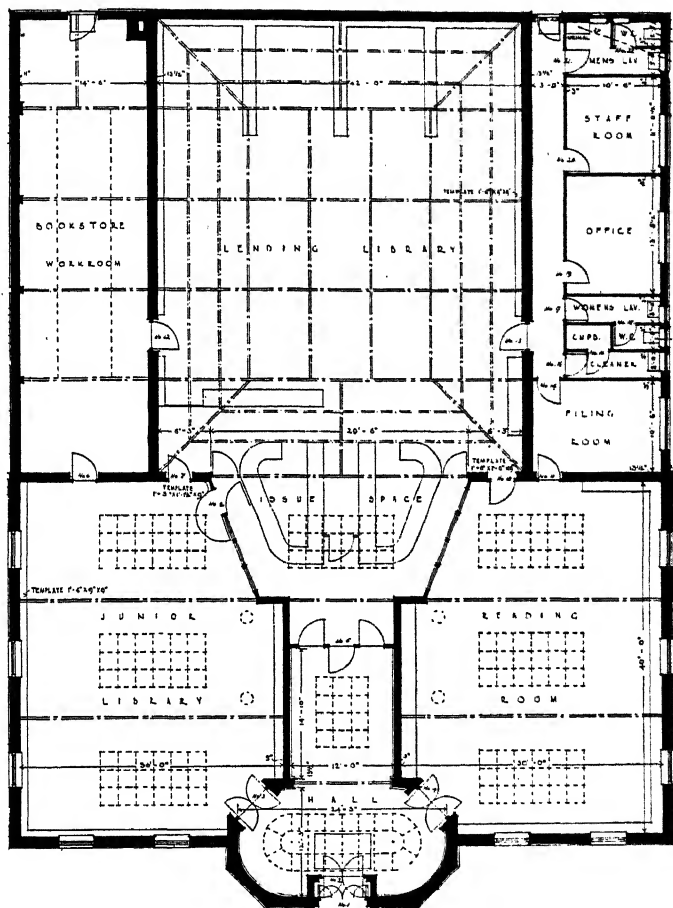


FIG. 37.—North Watford Branch Library—Plan showing all Departments Controlled from a Central Counter (Section 185).

supervision of the room, and be equipped with shelves, telephone, stationery and, possibly, space for bags and other receptacles which readers may be asked to deposit while they are using the library. There may be in larger libraries, apart

from the entrance wickets, a central desk equipped with bibliographies, catalogues, telephone and communication—sometimes book conveyors—where the needs of readers can be dealt with. Such central counters have their prototype in the British Museum Library. (See Section 225.)

187. Lifts.—Some means of conveying books may be required between stack and service point. The most common

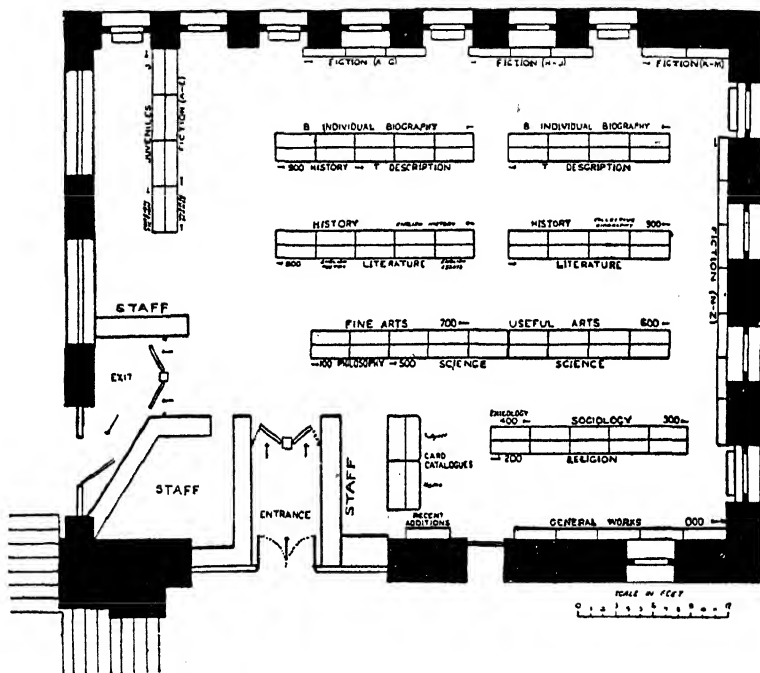


FIG. 38.—Plan of former arrangement of Croydon Central Lending Library, showing Double-Wickets and Classification (Section 184).

is the lift, which may be an electric one or, less satisfactorily, hand-worked, for bringing books from rooms above and below to the room in which they are wanted. Larger libraries have, in addition to book-lifts, passenger-lifts connecting the floors. The librarian will exercise strict supervision over lifts. They should have notices on them showing clearly the weight they are capable of carrying, and passenger-lifts should always be fitted with danger signals and of course never be installed without protective gates. The most modern lifts are almost fool-proof,

but even with these users must exercise a certain amount of care. Rapid service between stack rooms and other parts of the library is obtained by such devices as book conveyors, which permit the sending of a message from the charging desk to the stack and convey the book required in a tray to the desk. This is a variation of the travelling book conveyor first installed, we believe, in the Library of Congress. Examples of it can be seen at the British Library of Political Science in London and the Manchester Central Reference Library.

188. Communications.—The telephone, internal and external, is essential to the modern library. The Post Office Telephone Service has now become so inexpensive that the quite

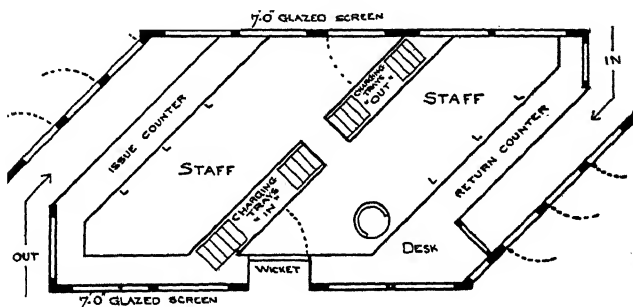


FIG. 39.—Triple Open Access Barrier (Section 184).

small library as well as the largest can afford to instal it, and its advantages are incalculable. It is especially necessary in any system of central library and branches, and it is desirable that extensions to important rooms should be available. For internal telephones there are many automatic systems by means of which one department can speak to another or even all the departments may consult together. This latter operation can be done by the telephone known as the Dictograph, in which a master instrument for the chief officer (which can be used without handling the instrument and has a loud speaker) is connected with a series of instruments in the various departments in such manner that an enquiry or consultation can take place with all the stations participating. The modern library cannot be worked satisfactorily with the delays which are involved when the telephone is not properly used.

189. Clocks, Calendars.—In every public department, and indeed in every private one, there should be good clocks with legible dials. The electric clock is the best as it requires no attention and keeps practically perfect time, and by this means all the clocks in the building are synchronised. Ther-

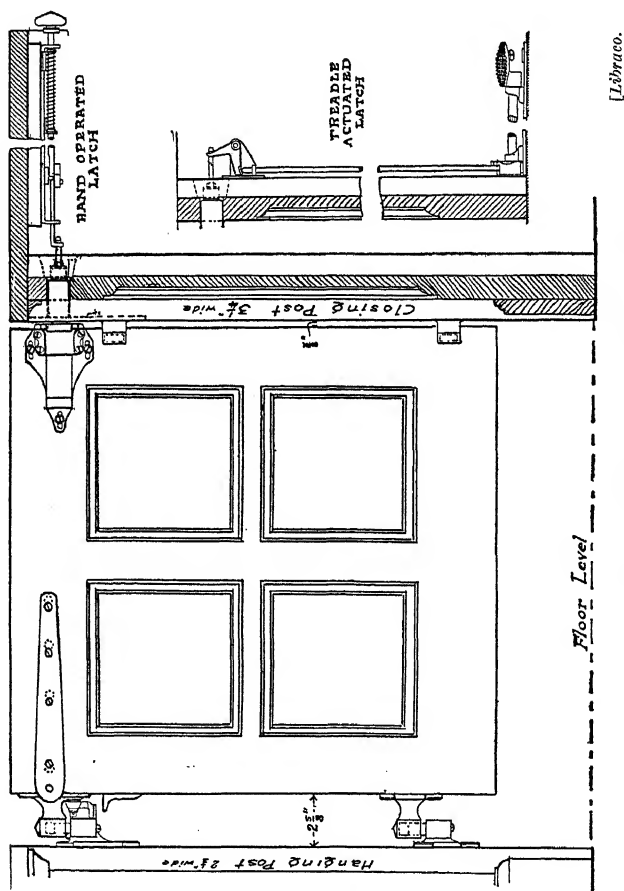


FIG. 40.—Lambert's Wicket Fittings (Section 184).

mometers as a check on the internal temperature should be in every room ; and bold, visible calendars should be provided.

190. Parking, Etc.—Very few libraries in the centre of towns have the space to provide parking places for cars or cycles, although it would be a great advantage to have them ; in some towns stands for cycles are provided, as at Watford.

Spaces too for perambulators present a problem, but an effort should be made to provide for them as it is literally true that some women would be unable to visit the library at any time without their children. At one library only do we know of proper provision being made for the chaining up of dogs outside the building. If a quiet place is available it is an advantage, but it must be remembered that dogs resent chaining, and their howling is not conducive to the quiet desired in libraries. Readers should be encouraged not to bring dogs to libraries.

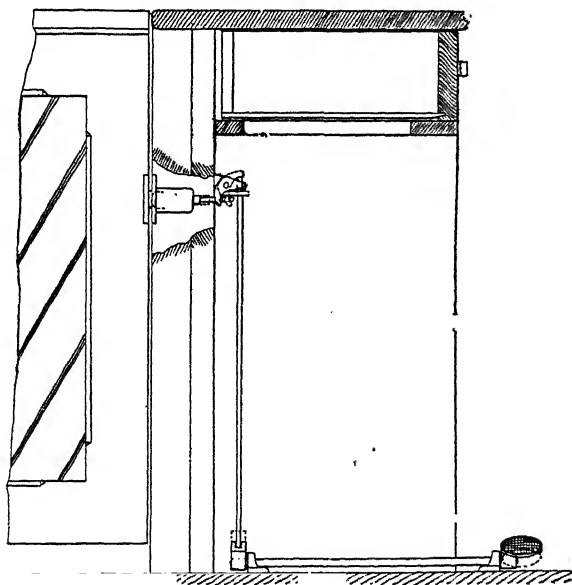


FIG. 41.—Treadle Latch for Open Access Wicket
(Section 184).

In all these cases, however, the conditions of the neighbourhood and the space available will determine the matter.

191. Notice Boards.—It is often forgotten that the vestibule of the library should be, as it were, an information centre for all the activities of the library and some of the activities of the town. Well-designed notice boards, built into the walls if possible, are a valuable part of the equipment not only of the vestibule but of every department; they must not be forgotten when considering fixtures.

192. The various other fixtures, fittings, and pieces of apparatus which a library needs will be dealt with in the appropriate

places. Miss Linda A. Eastman made a list of things, some of which every library needs, all of which some, but not many, libraries need. It is as follows: Adding machines, addressing machines, billing machines, binding and repair materials, book-pockets, book-supports, book-trucks, book-typewriters, brushes and dusters, bulletin boards, card-alphabets, card and paper cutters, cash registers, copying machines, counters, date-holders, dating-stamps, dictating-machines, dummies, exhibition frames, filing systems, finger pads, floor-covering, floor machines, folding machines, fountain pens, guide cards, index guides, ink, inkpads, inkwells, intercommunicating systems, label holders, labels, loose-leaf systems, magazine binders, magazine covers, mail openers, manifolders, map cases, metal furniture, moistening devices, music binders, newspaper files, numbering and dating machines, pamphlet binders, paper-fastening devices, paper presses, pasting machines, pencil sharpeners, photographic copying machines, printing presses, sealing machines, sign-making devices, stacks and shelving, stamp-affixing machines, telephone attachments, time records of staff, time stamps, typewriter ribbons, typewriters, umbrella stands, vacuum cleaners, and visible indexes.

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For articles, see Cannons, F 47, Library Architecture, Planning, Furniture and Supplies; and Library Literature, under Architecture and its sub-divisions. Many of the recent experiments in furnishing and book-display have not yet been incorporated in books or in the indexes cited. Consult the current indexes of the individual library journals carefully in this subject.

The catalogues of the various library supply firms should also be obtained, as they are often well illustrated and show the latest devices.

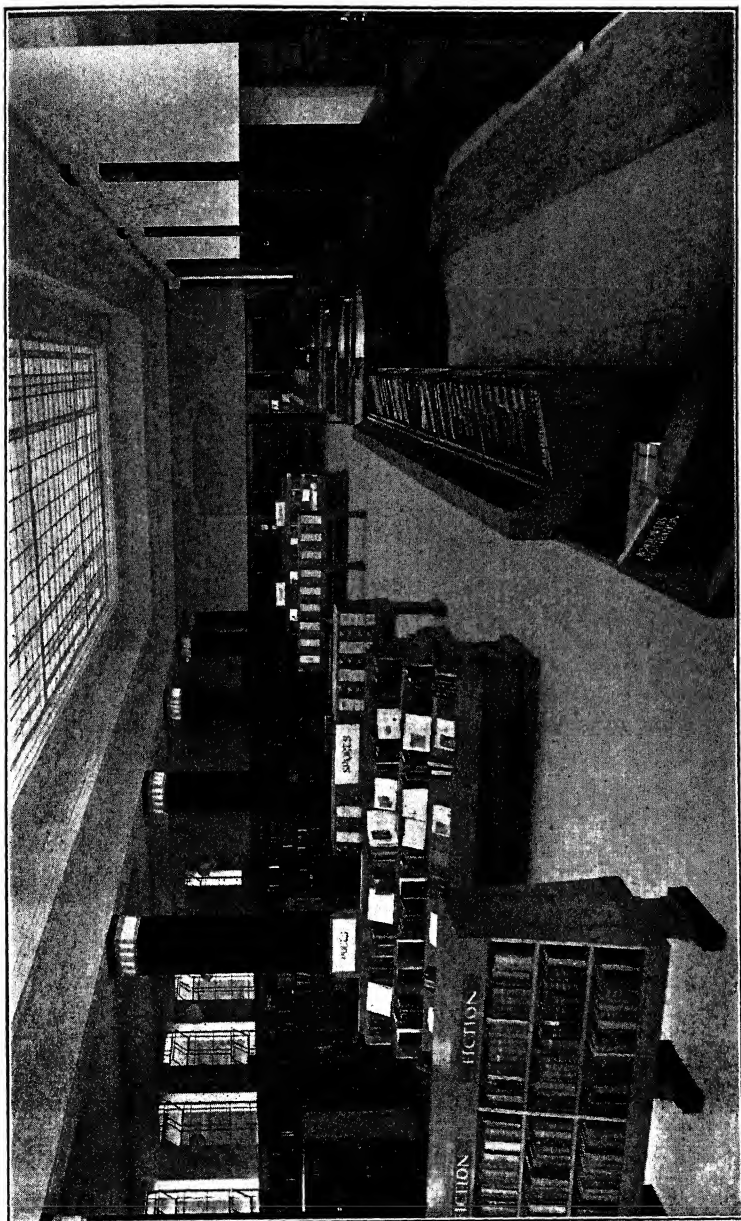


FIG. 42.—The Central Lending Library, Sheffield, showing Staff Enclosure and Display Stands, Catalogues, etc.
(Sections 184-185).

CHAPTER XI

SHELVING AND ACCESSORIES

193. The chief requirements of book-shelving are accessibility and adjustability. Shelves which can only be reached by means of ladders, are no longer installed, except when the wall is, in effect, provided with a gallery giving access to the top half. Modern librarians prefer to enlarge their floor area for the purpose of book-storage, and to provide bookcases the highest shelves of which are within easy reach of the floor, thus placing the entire stock that is on view at the command of both staff and readers.

194. Adjustability is just as important as accessibility. In every method or appliance which is introduced for library, or, indeed, any other work, the principle of movability or adjustability should be preferred to fixity. The power of moving or changing without altering the character or shape of anything is of advantage in every operation, and a good illustration of the application of this power is furnished by the card catalogue, with its infinite capacity for expansion. Book-shelves, in their own way, should be as mobile as cards, and should be so adjustable that a new shelf can be introduced or an existing one removed at any point. The only advantage which fixed wooden shelves possess is that of comparative cheapness, but this is an advantage which, in a short time, is more than balanced by the inconveniences which arise through the impossibility of placing books of varying sizes in strict classified order on the shelves. Besides the probable sacrifice of vertical space, it will be found in a rapidly growing library that the carefully gauged shelves, at eight, nine, ten, or twelve inches apart, in every tier, cannot be made to contain all the books in their order which ought to go on these shelves. The day comes when the eight-and-a-half or nine-and-a-half inch book arrives which must go on the eight or nine inch shelf, and, because there is no means of making a slight adjustment, such books must either be shelved out of their order, or placed on their fore-edges. If such shelves are arranged throughout a

library at a distance of ten inches apart to provide for contingencies, they will take all sizes up to demy 8vo, but at a great sacrifice of space, especially in the fiction shelves, where most of the books average about seven and a half inches. Liberal spacing will result in the loss of a shelf in every tier, thereby reducing the total storage space by about one-eighth or one-ninth, according to the number of shelves in a tier. The balance of advantage lies with movable forms of shelving. Shelves may be of metal or of wood according to the taste of the library authority. Shelves with absolute or comparative adjustability can be obtained in either, and it is possible to obtain a large number of attractive colour finishes in metal. Some librarians prefer wood shelves, oak, walnut, jarrah or mahogany being the favourite woods, for the open shelves; but there can be no doubt that there is much to be said for metal in stack rooms; it is easily worked, sanitary, fire-resistant and has a lighter appearance than wood.

195. The recognized dimensions for a bay of ordinary standard and wall shelving are 7 feet 6 inches \times 3 feet \times 7 inches, and book-cases are made up in units of these dimensions as a rule. Standard shelves, with two sides, are usually 15 inches deep.

Exactly the same dimensions can be used with wooden presses fitted with adjustable brackets or catches. In reference libraries the dimensions may be slightly varied, as the average book which must be stored is rather larger than in lending libraries. But the chief provision for folio and large quarto books should be in special cases, and it is well to have presses intended for music and quartos fitted with uprights about 18 inches apart, in order to distribute the weight of the books and facilitate their handling.

196. For the reference library adjustability is very desirable. In some libraries the three sizes of books, octavo, quarto, folio, are shelved in the same case, but of course each together in its own part of the case; in others the octavo books of a class (say science) are arranged, followed by the quarto and then by the folio books of the class; and as yet others there are three complete parallel *size* libraries. The standard reference unit of book-case is 7 feet 6 inches high, 3 feet long, and 1 foot 6 inches between shelf and shelf and about 10 inches from front to back of shelf.

197. Adjustable Shelf Fittings.—The old-fashioned varieties of shelf adjustments for wooden bookcases, such as pegs fitting into holes drilled in the uprights, one and a half or

two inches apart, wooden or metal ratchets for carrying bars or rods for supporting the shelves, and similar devices, have nearly all given place to the Vernier type of shelf (see 200 below) or to shelves which rest on studs inserted into holes, drilled at intervals in the uprights of the bookcases. The best-known adjustment is that known as Tonks', from the name of its patentee. It consists of metal strips, with perforations at inch intervals, let into grooves in the uprights, and designed to carry the shelves on four metal studs or catches, which engage

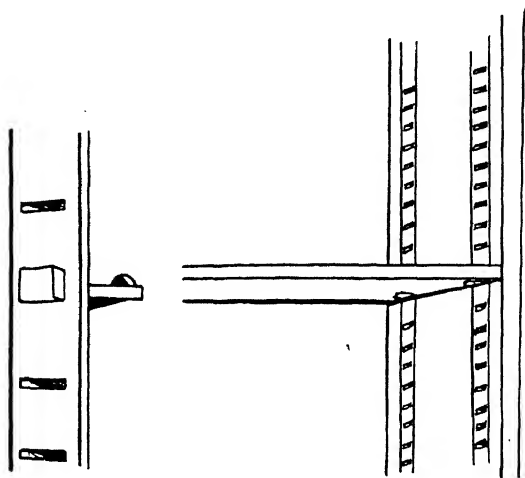


FIG. 43.—Tonks' Shelf Fittings (Section 197).

in the slots or perforations. This method requires careful fitting, as the grooves in the woodwork must be deep and smooth enough to admit the catches, and each metal strip must be accurately inserted so that the slots will be exactly level with those in the adjoining and opposite uprights. If the studs are not all at one level, part of the shelf will be unsupported and it will rock and buckle. The illustration of shelf supported on standard, and perforated metal slip and stud will show exactly the form of this fitting (Fig. 43).

It should be noted that this variety of shelf fitting does not give absolute adjustability, but only a movement of about an inch up or down, as may be required.

198. There are various other methods of fixed shelf adjustments for wooden bookcases, English, American and German,

but none of them possess any particular advantage over Tonks' variety.

Absolute adjustability in shelf fittings, as applied to wooden cases, has been obtained in the English method, to be seen at various libraries in England. There are also various American systems.

Both of these forms are similar in principle to the absolute adjustments described under Section 199, but the English

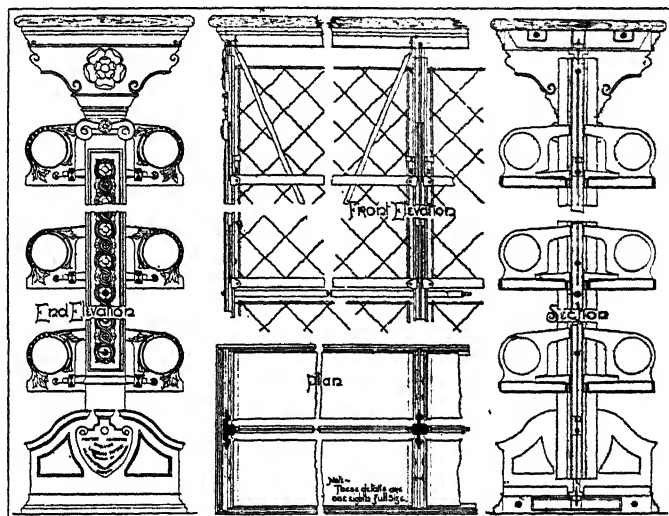


FIG. 44.—Details of Lambert's Metal Shelving (Section 199).

system was the first to be patented, and therefore ranks as the pioneer of this type of shelf fitting.

199. Metal Bookcases with Absolute Shelf Adjustments.—An English variety of metal bookcase with absolute shelf adjustment is that which has been installed in Perth, the Patent Office Library, London, Islington, and elsewhere. It consists, as shown in Fig. 44, of strong steel uprights, in which are formed continuous grooves, which carry and support shelf brackets designed to grip at any point by automatic means. These brackets will slide up and down the uprights to any point while a small controlling lever is depressed, but the moment this is released the bracket will become firmly fixed in place, and will remain there till again moved, whatever weight may be placed upon the shelf which it supports. These

brackets can be pushed up without touching the controlling lever, and will always grip at the point where they are left. To push them down, the controlling arm must be depressed as already described. The shelves for this type of case may be either metal or wood. Standard cases made in the dimensions given in Section 195 are usually divided down the middle, at the back of each set of shelves, by means of a wire-work grill. This does not obstruct oversight, light or air, yet serves to prevent books on one face of the standard from being accidentally or otherwise transferred to the opposite face. There are points of safety, convenience and adjustability about metal bookcases which make them preferable to all other forms.

200. To the inventor of the shelving just described, the late Arthur W. Lambert, a craftsman of rare skill who perfected many fittings, we owe another form of metal shelving which is known as the Vernier shelving, the appearance of which may be judged from Figs. 45 and 46. This shelving is light, sanitary and practical. It gives adjustment to within one-eighth of an inch in the manner of a vernier—hence its name—and as the shelves are supported by narrow pillars set at the back of the shelves there is none of the obstruction at shelf ends which occurs with some other systems.

201. A special form of metal bookcase has been designed for book-storage in small spaces, and as applied to the India Office Library, London, and Bodleian Library, Oxford, has been found convenient and economical. The same shelf adjustment is used, but the presses instead of resting on the floor are swung from iron girders, so as to slide easily whenever wanted. These presses are swung closely side by side and drawn out, one at a time, as required. These rolling stacks, as they are called, may be had in vernier shelving if desired.

A somewhat similar plan for increasing the storage capacity was introduced into the British Museum many years ago, the chief difference being that the sliding presses go face to face with the existing standards, one here and there, instead of in solid rows as at the India Office.

202. It is not proposed to describe every variety of iron or metal bookcase which has been introduced, such as those of the Library Bureau, Smith, Libraco, Cotgreave, Newcombe, Roneo, and the Art Metal Construction Company, and it will be sufficient to mention that in Britain, France, Germany and America there are several interesting forms used.

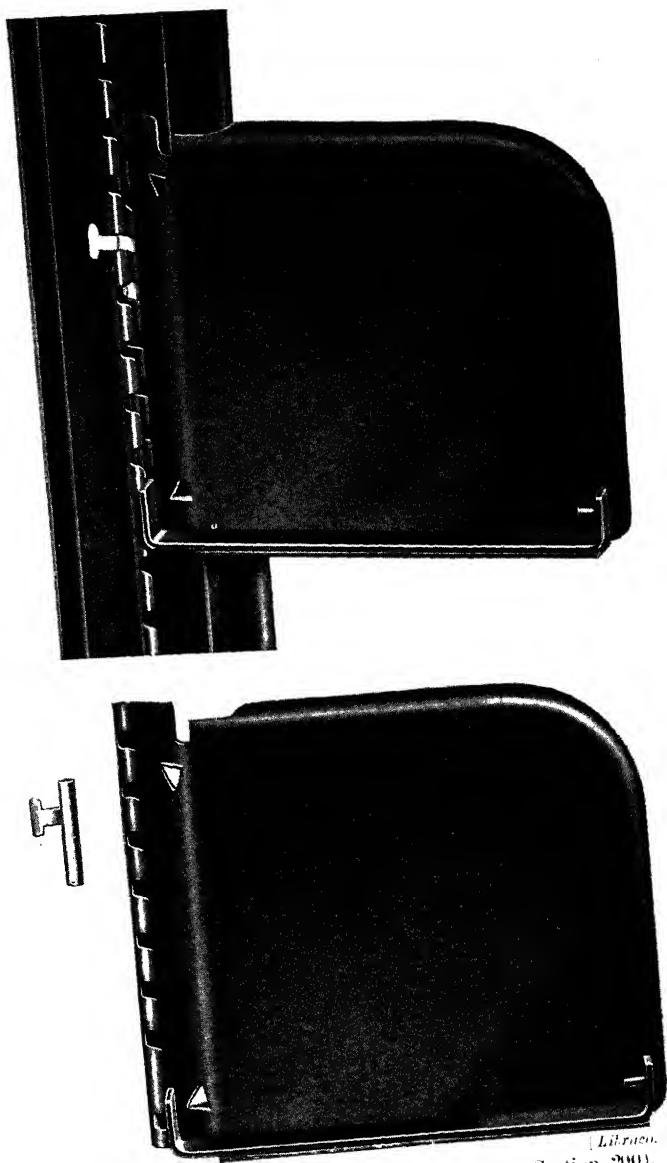


FIG. 45.—Two Details of Vernier Shelving (Section 200).
Librao.

203. **Special Bookcases.**—In Section 196 the reference library wall-case is described which is suitable for folio and quarto volumes. It may be necessary to provide additional

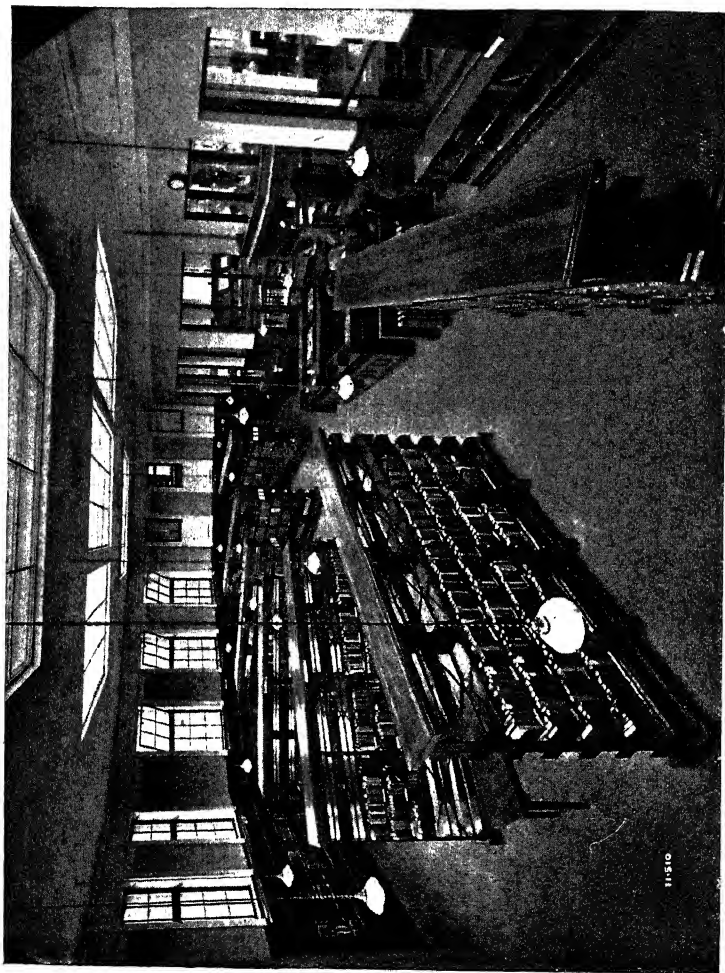


FIG. 46.—Vernier Shelving in position at the Shettleston and Tollcross Library, Glasgow (Section 200).

storage space for bound files of newspapers, extra large folios and prints. As small libraries will bind only the files of local papers, the provision by them of shelves for this purpose need not be a very serious matter.

204. Large folio volumes are best kept flat on sliding trays or shelves. When they are kept upright they are very apt to suffer through the heavy leaves sagging and dragging at the binding. Valuable folios should always be kept in flat positions. A suitable method of storage is to provide a large double-sided case, with a sloping top, which can be used for consulting the books. The shelves should be arranged to slide out and in on small wheels or runners, and each shelf may have a brass handle on its fore-edge to enable it to be pulled out easily. The dimensions of such a case will depend upon the number of

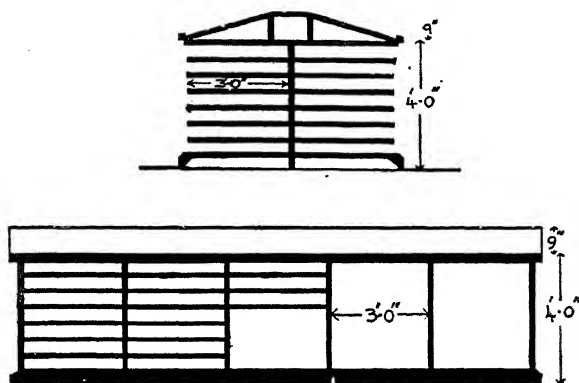


FIG. 47.—Case for Large Folio Books—Section and Elevation
(Section 204).

folios to be stored and their size, but that illustrated above (Fig. 47) will be found suitable for ordinary purposes. It will store about 150 to 200 folio volumes, according to their thickness. The shelves may be covered on their upper surfaces with leather or thick cloth. A similar style of rack can be used for storing large collections of prints, the only difference being that the prints would be kept in special boxes as described in Section 358, which would take the place of volumes.

205. In calculating the number of volumes which can be shelved in a given space, the following general rules will be found fairly accurate :

Nine lending library books will occupy one foot run of space.

Eight reference library books will occupy one foot run of space.

Allowance must be made, in calculating from plans, for the space occupied by uprights, etc., and care must be taken to

reckon dwarf bookcases only according to their capacity. If nine inches are allowed as the average height of books, which will give eight shelves to a tier seven feet six inches high, excluding cornices, plinth or thickness of shelves, then a single-sided case of the dimensions shown in Section 196 will store 216 volumes in a lending library and about 192 in a reference library. A double-sided case will hold 432 and 384 volumes respectively.

206. Racks for Filing.—Wooden racks or iron-pipe racks may be used for a variety of purposes, such as storing unbound newspapers and periodicals, pamphlets, and all kinds of loose papers or bundles. Such racks are best made in a light, open form, so as to reduce the collection of dust to a minimum, while admitting air and light freely.

207. Galleries : Stacks.—Galleries are sometimes added to lofty reference libraries and other departments to provide a means of reaching high wall-shelves, and also to give additional accommodation. Unless there is some strong reason, architectural or otherwise, galleries should be avoided in the public parts of a library. Save for storing little-used stock, galleries are not recommended in any situation, unless the pressure for book space is very great.

But all libraries sooner or later are faced with the storage of books, as has been suggested several times, because to provide room for open access to all a library stock, if it is of any size, is impossible. To-day the library grows at a pace hardly contemplated when most of our pre-war libraries were built, and the average town of over 100,000 people requires eventually a stack which will accommodate about one-third of its total stock of books. The stack in great libraries may be larger than all the other parts of the building, and its importance and size increase for every library. The Manchester Reference Library, for example, is in the main a spacious reading room resting upon a stack as large as itself, and such libraries as the British Museum and the Library of Congress are great reading rooms in the centre of or adjacent to much greater stacks. The modern stack usually consists of many series of bookcases, three feet or thereabouts apart, resting on one another and divided at every seven feet or thereabouts by floors of glass or iron grating, the outer walls being merely a shell, usually with windows running from roof to base, to cover this structure of shelves. Good examples of the great stack can be seen at Cambridge University Library and the new University

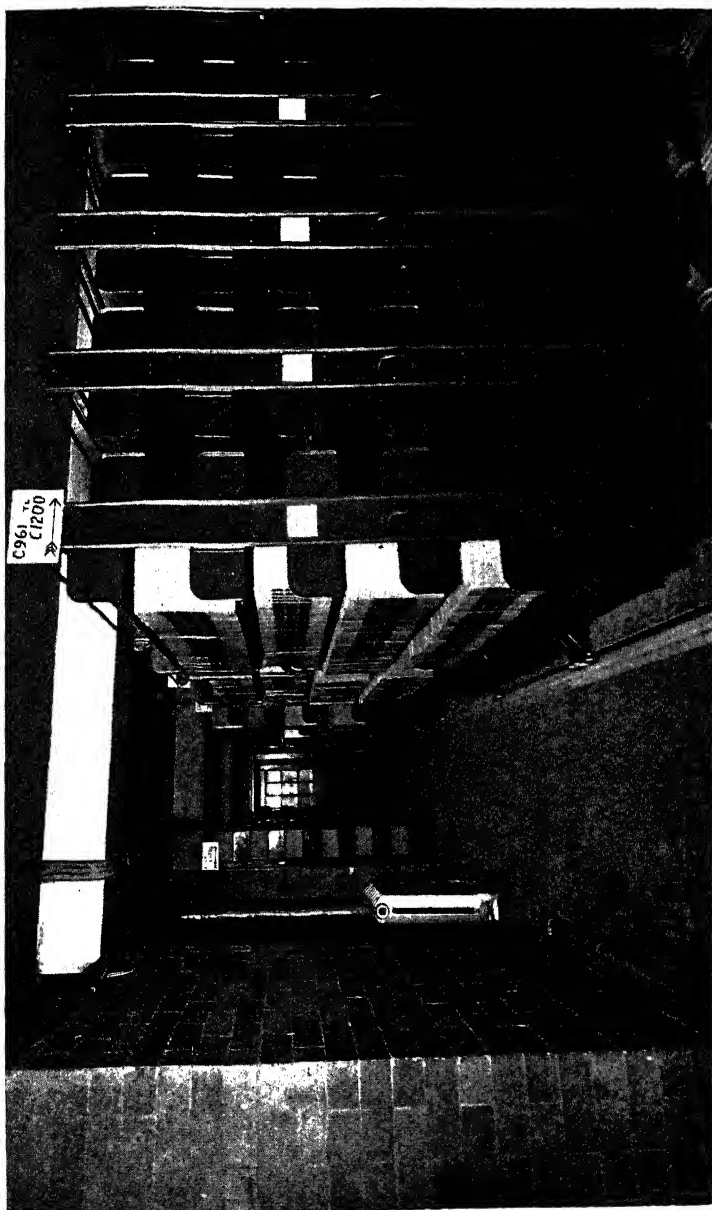


FIG. 48.—Rolling Cases in Book Stack in the Mitchell Library, Glasgow (Section 207).

Library at Liverpool and a smaller, but still considerable one at Brighton Public Library. A well known form permitting much concentration of stock is the stack fitted with bookcases which pack closely and can be drawn out on rails as if they were up-ended drawers in a cupboard. Fig. 48 shows a part of such a stack at Glasgow. All stacks are made readily accessible by lifts, and always have stairs as well from floor to floor. They are relatively inexpensive, can be built up by degrees, and enable a small building to do much more work than otherwise would be possible. They must, of course, be in the closest possible relation to the public departments.

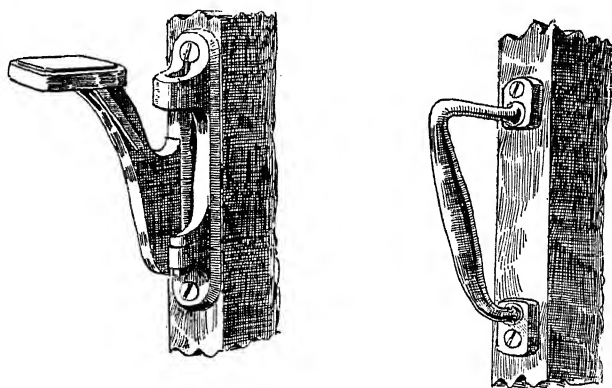


FIG. 49.—Swinging Step and Shelf Handle (Section 210).

208. In libraries with bookcases of the uniform height of seven feet six inches, long ladders will be unnecessary, but in some libraries they must be provided; and short steps for enabling the upper shelves of seven feet six inch cases to be scanned easily are often required by short or short-sighted readers.

209. In some open access libraries it has been found advisable, in cases where the top shelves are out of reach, to provide a continuous fixed step of wood or iron at the base of each bookcase, to enable readers to reach the upper shelves without using movable steps of the sort figured above. A strong, wide iron rail projecting about four inches or six inches from the case, about nine inches or twelve inches above the ground, has been found useful, especially when associated with a handle fastened to the upright at a convenient height above. Such shelves, however, are hardly likely to be introduced into new

*Libra.*

FIG. 50.—A Small Island Book-case with Tilted Shelves (Section 211).

libraries, and older ones should abandon them as soon as possible.

210. Detached steps secured to the uprights of bookcases, combined with handles, are very often used for staff purposes in place of the ordinary movable wooden steps or ladders. There is one form with an automatic adjustment which enables the step to spring up flat against the upright out of the way when not wanted, and another kind (Fig. 49), which is always in position for use, also possesses an automatic adjustment enabling it to be brushed aside harmlessly by anyone passing

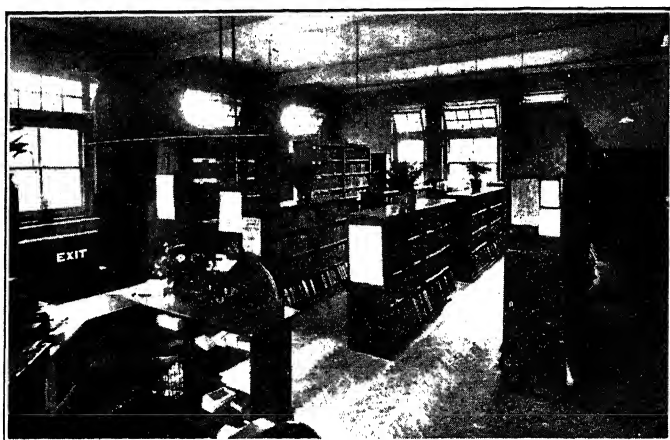


FIG. 51.—A small Library, with Old Shelves, the bottom ones being tilted (Section 212).

and to return to its “ready” position at once. Here, again, bookshelves of proper height should make the use of these obsolete.

211. Tilted Shelves.—Some years ago L. Stanley Jast suggested to the Editor that the lowest shelves in a library might with advantage be tilted in order that the book titles might be read without that stooping which some people find so unpleasant. The suggestion was tried at Croydon with complete success, and as a result the lower shelves of most modern bookcases slope so that every book-title can be seen. Fig. 50 shows a small island case in which the lower shelves are tilted, and the various pictures of the Sheffield and other libraries given in these pages show the method as elaborated by skilful librarians. In this connexion it is well to realize

that only about four shelves in a bookcase have the maximum effectiveness ; that is to say, those which are from two feet to five feet from the ground measuring from the bottom of the shelf in each case.

212. Modern Library Arrangement.—The setting out of the library has been carefully studied in recent years. The former method was to get on to the open shelves as complete a stock as the space permitted, and in lending libraries the reader was treated as a person who came briefly into the library, selected a book with some discrimination from well-classified shelves, and forthwith left with it. The walls were covered with vertical shelves and the floors with standard cases, having gangways and spaces in accordance with the rules given in Section 160. Such libraries did excellent work. To-day there is a tendency to rely more on the stack, to reduce the number of shelves, and to provide more circulation space for readers and room for display cases, tables, with chairs, for the examination of books, and desks for readers' assistants, and even for flowers and ferns and other decorative things. In a few libraries there have been attempts to turn wall-shelves into slopes on which the books lie on their fore-edges, a method which is most attractive but occupies more space than can usually be afforded. A library is envisaged which is a spacious home of books, bright with good bindings, illuminated by well-chosen guides in colour, and furnished at least as comfortably as an ordinary house should be. Much ingenuity has gone to this development, and the lay-out of the Sheffield Central Library, the Norbury Library at Croydon, the Edinburgh branches and the Purley Central Library are examples, the study of which will show better than many words the change that has come over public libraries in this respect.

CHAPTER XII

FURNITURE

213. A library, as much as any civic institution, is an expression of the mind and taste of a community. Of late that taste would appear to have improved greatly and the furniture and its accessories in the public library of to-day are much in advance both in beauty and in utility of those of forty years ago. There is good business sense in this, because a fine building, appropriately fitted up, not only impresses the visitor, but it also causes the citizens to take pride in the library. A fine building ill-fitted inside must have a quite different effect. While a distinction may be drawn between luxury and propriety, it is more economical in the end for things to be better than they might be than to be worse than they ought to be!

In the course of time much library furniture has become of standard pattern and materials, and some of it, being the result of the law of the survival of the fittest, is as good for its purpose as anything available. Individuality, however, in the design of tables, chairs, display stands, and so on, has its own values. What are described here are the best averages of these articles, and having these in mind the reader may examine with profit the recent contributions to library furnishings of Leeds, Sheffield, Manchester, Leyton and Dagenham, amongst many others.

214. Reading Tables.—The first business of the librarian in furnishing is to study the amount of space at his disposal in relation to the probable number of users of each department, and to provide furniture which is suitable to the shape, lighting and decoration at his disposal. Furniture should be in harmony, but should not all be of one shape—all rectangular tables, all desks of a pattern—but combinations should be carefully made. To take orthodox furniture in some sort of order: reading tables for general reading rooms should not be too long, or too narrow if readers are to sit on both sides. A table to accommodate, say, eight persons, four on each side, should be 8 feet long \times 3 feet wide \times 32 inches high. A certain number of tables

may be made with desk or sloping tops. Oak, walnut or other hard woods should be used for library furniture. Pitch pine

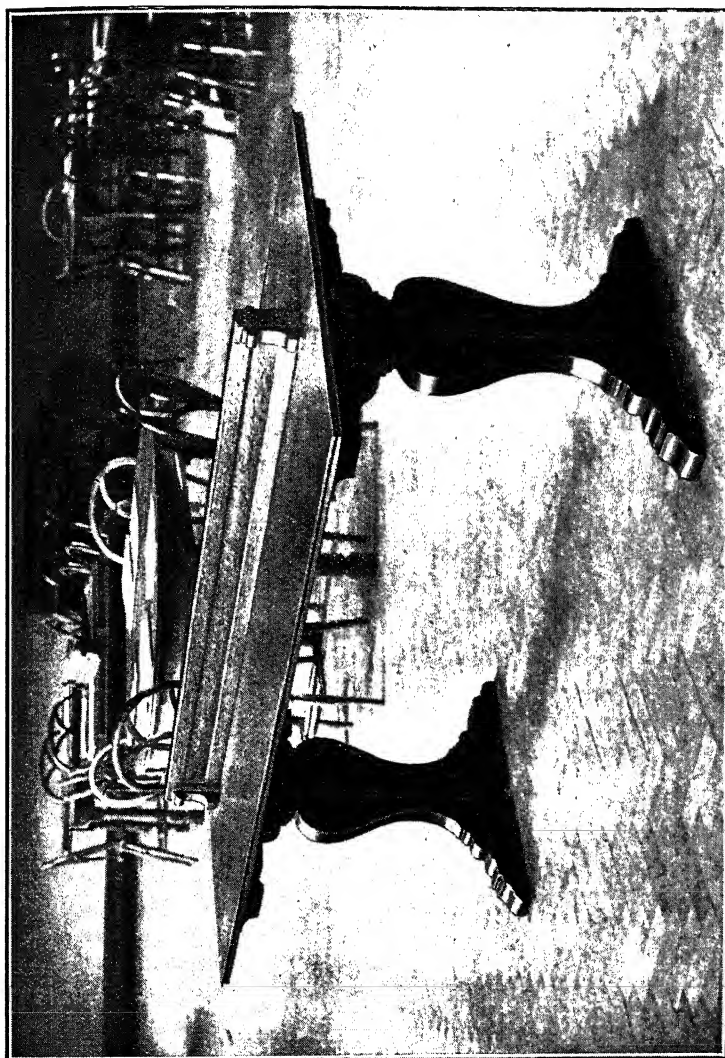
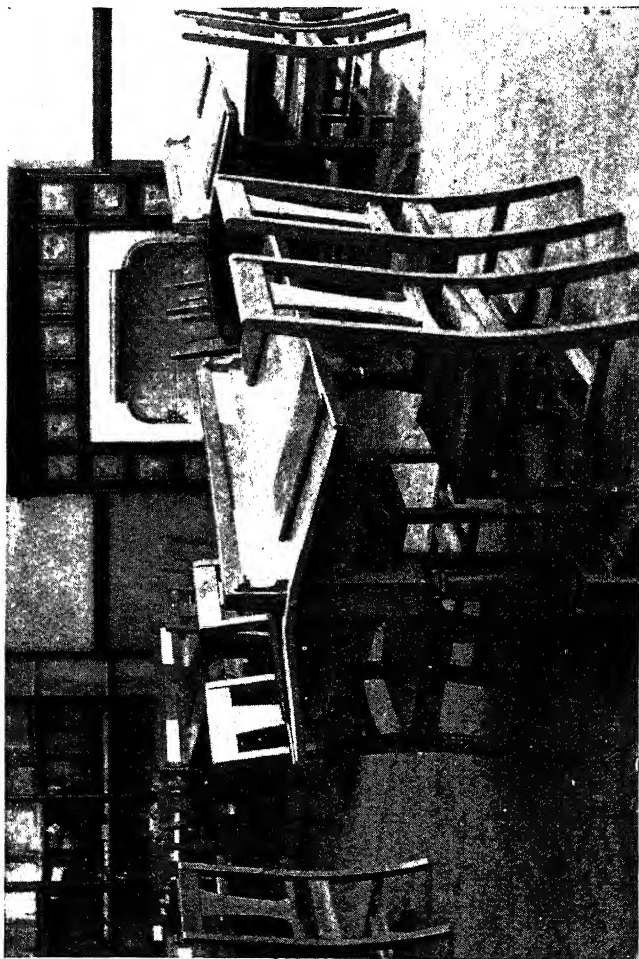


FIG. 62.—A Reading Room Table (Section 214).

[Librco.]

is not recommended, as it invariably splits as the resin dries out. Metal furniture is available and is quite successful, although it is thought by some that it provides chill surfaces, as

indeed may the glass tops which are used both with wood and metal. Metal surfaces can be covered with cork, rubber or leather to remedy this. In any case, it is well to cover wooden



[Litho.]
FIG. 53.—Sloped Reading Table designed by the late H. T. Hare, F.R.I.B.A. (Section 216).

surfaces on which the use of ink is permitted with some material which will absorb the ink invisibly or which can be cleaned, because ink-stained woods are unsightly and cannot be cleaned except by the expensive process of planing and repolishing, and not always then.

215. In reference libraries, especially in those designed for students with open access to the shelves, liberal space and as much isolation as possible should be allowed. The British Museum tables are still regarded by veteran readers as the best, as they are the type of English reference library tables



FIG. 54.—British Museum Reading Room Table and Easel
(Section 215).

(see Fig. 54); they give a certain amount of seclusion, but perhaps not enough room for books and materials. A solution of the "long table difficulty" is that shown in the Battersea reference library (Fig. 56), which needs no explanation. But the reference reader's ideal is "a table to himself," ensuring room, comfort and isolation. To ensure this, a system of separate tables similar to the form illustrated, but with rounded edges and corners (Fig. 55), is strongly recommended, or some way which will secure the same accommodation. The plan of

making the table the unit of space instead of the reader will automatically solve the problem of how much room to allow.

The table illustrated (Fig. 55) has six square feet of free table-top, to which a sloping writing-desk can be added if desired, a sunk ink-well, a back board six or nine inches high to prevent overlooking by neighbours, and to provide space for ruler and pen racks, shelves, clips, etc., shelves under the table for holding extra books, materials or an overcoat, an extension

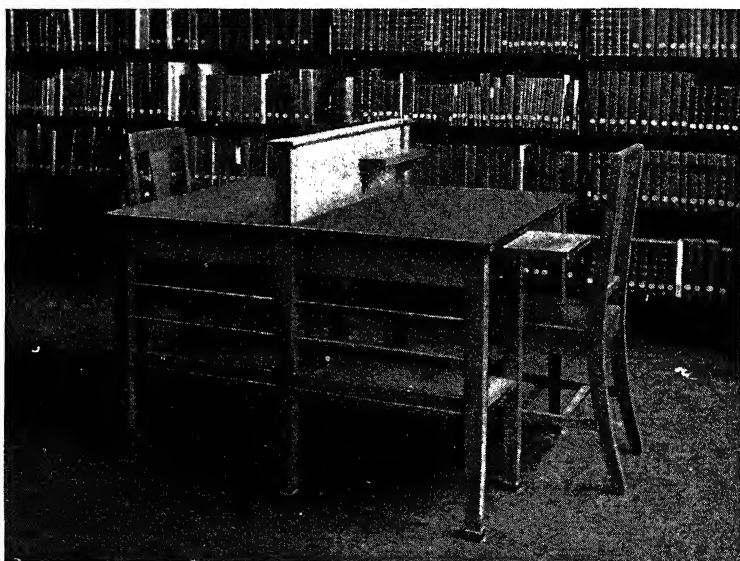


FIG. 55.—Reference Room Table (Section 215).

[*Libraco.*

slide to pull out and form a book-rest or supplementary table for papers, and in addition, if space permits, an umbrella holder can be fitted to the left-hand support of the table, so that each reader will be isolated and self-contained.

Tables for the examination of books in lending libraries are usually small and must be chosen in relation to space; too large ones are obstructive and should be avoided. Display stands are dealt with in Sections 301–03.

216. Periodicals, Tables and Racks.—The question of the method of displaying periodicals and magazines is discussed in Chapter XXXI, and it is not necessary to consider the matter of policy here. Various kinds of tables have been designed for displaying magazines in covers in a fixed place, and for simply

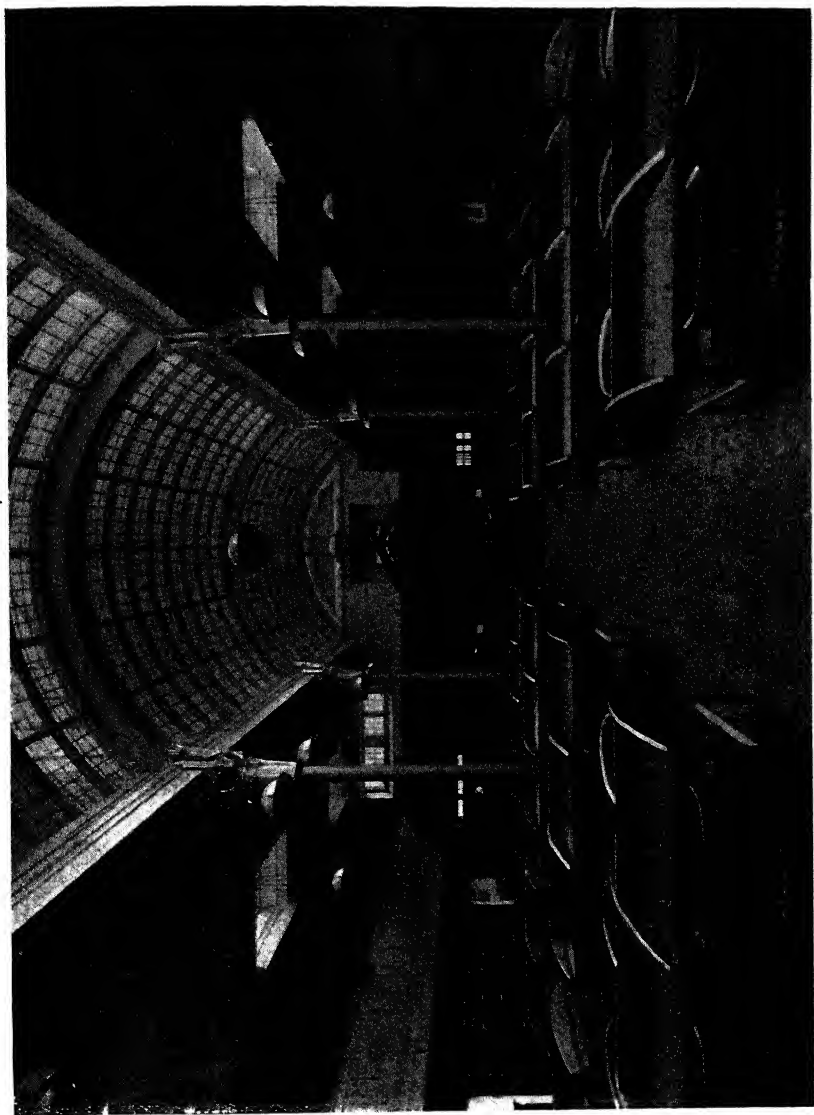


FIG. 56.—Batterssea Reference Library, showing "individual" Tables (Section 215).

enabling them to be easily read in the ordinary way. Where periodicals are kept in racks, ordinary 8 feet \times 3 feet tables, or round tables 3 feet in diameter suffice. In older libraries the tables sometimes have to perform the combined function of racks and tables, other arrangements exist. There are many forms of rack-table, but only three need be described. The first, which has been used in several large libraries, provides a large,



[*Librao.*

FIG. 57.—Reading Table with Partition for Titles (Section 218).

somewhat inelegant, elevated rack above the table-top, on which the periodicals are placed, so as to free as much as possible of the table surface for readers. In this form of table-rack the periodicals are not fastened to their places, and, owing to the varied sizes of the periodicals in an elevated position, they give a somewhat untidy appearance to a room.

217. A less conspicuous form, and one equally effective, dispenses with the elevated platform, and the rack simply rests upon the table-top. If necessary, the periodicals can be fastened to the rack by means of cords or chains encased in rubber or leathern thongs, and the contents of each table can be displayed

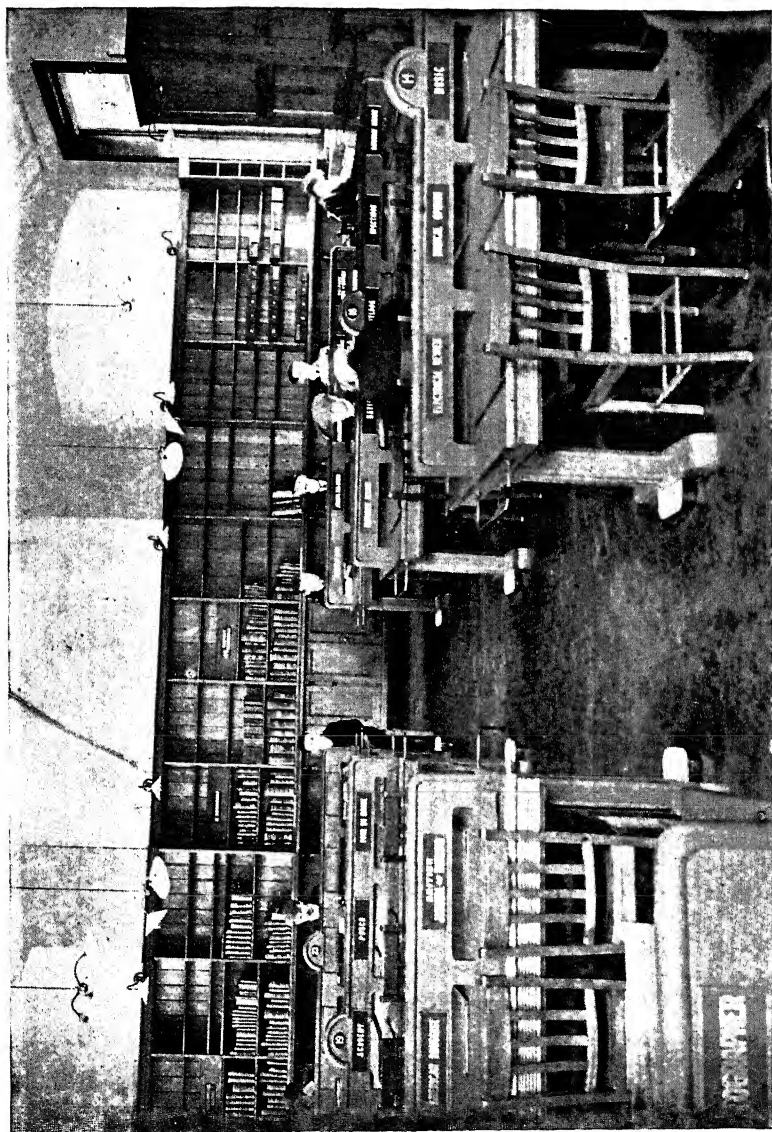


FIG. 58.—Reading Tables with Partitions for Titles (Section 218).

Libraco.

219. Periodical racks are made in a large variety of forms, and the illustrations of reading-rooms occurring at several places in this MANUAL should be studied for this particular. An effective rack is that shown in Fig. 60, which has stainless steel rails and appropriately comes from Sheffield.

220. Nearly all these forms of magazine rack and table have been superseded by a rack which is in effect a shelf on which periodicals in their covers are displayed as if they were books. These racks have a series of vertical slots into which the magazines are inserted, and the covers of the latter are lettered on the back-strip, and not only on the sides as was formerly the method. This rack is shown in the illustration (Fig. 62). By its use the tables are freed from racks, readers can sit anywhere they choose, and many more periodicals can be displayed than by the older methods.

221. Reading Easels.—In connexion with these special tables, book-stands or easels for keeping a number of books open at once will be found useful for the student who desires to compare his authorities. The book easels shown below are the best form yet devised. Fig. 63, which is made entirely of metal, has the advantage of leaving the table surface practically free and unobstructed, while the automatic means provided for keeping books open at any place, irrespective of the number of leaves, is of great utility.

Fig. 64, constructed of wood, is also a light useful article, but as it rests the book close to the table surface more obstruction is caused, while the leaf-holders are not automatically adjusting.

There are various other forms of wooden reading easels, but they are light articles designed to fold up, and will not carry large reference books with any great degree of security.

222. Chairs.—There is such an immense variety of library chairs that the chief difficulty becomes that of selection. In all ordinary situations arm-chairs, not too wide however, are best, as they give an automatic spacing of elbow-room which renders calculation unnecessary. They should be strong, well-designed and comfortable, and, in some reference libraries, seats upholstered in leather or rexine are preferred.

223. Where by survivals of bad planning the space between tables is very restricted the chairs may be fastened to the floor, so that there can be no blocking of gangways. One plan is to have revolving arm-chairs mounted on pedestals secured to the floor. These have the one great disadvantage of being non-adjustable. Readers cannot pull them a little forward or push

them back, and thus such fixed chairs have the defect of all fixed things—they cannot be moved to suit varying conditions.

All chairs should be shod with rubber or leather pads to deaden the noise of movement on the floor. There are several

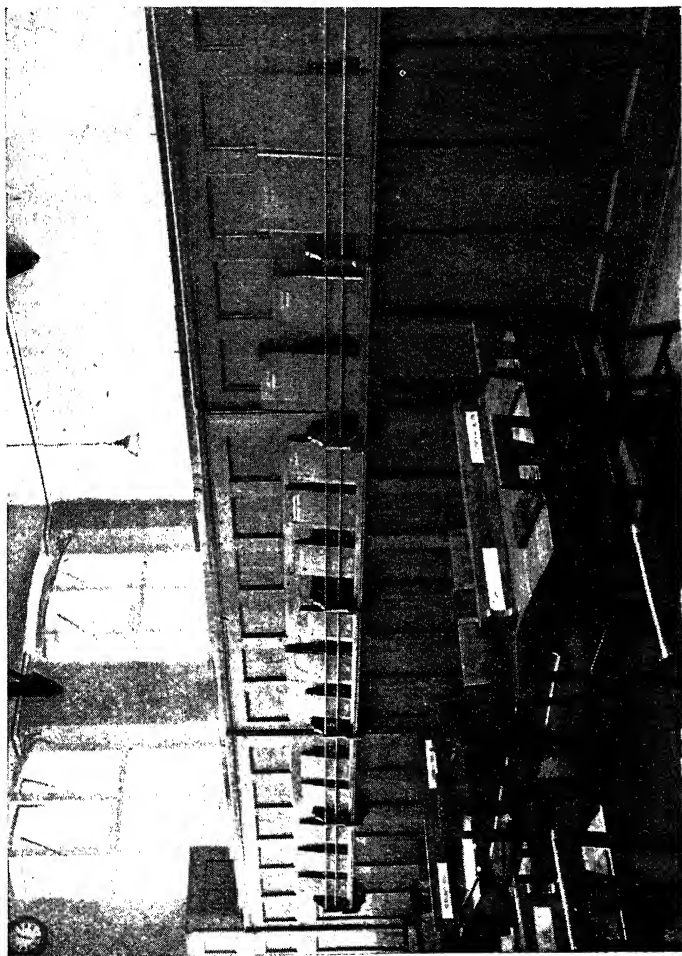


FIG. 61.—Treatment of Wall as Periodicals Rack (Section 219).

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varieties of such pads to be obtained from furnishing firms. Metal gliders such as domes of silence are sometimes used instead, but these have a tendency to make chairs slip from under readers in a disconcerting fashion !

224. Every library should buy more chairs than are required. This will enable the chairs to be removed for cleaning purposes in batches of a dozen or more, their places being taken by the spare ones. This will prevent the seating accommodation from being reduced during any cleaning operations. At the same time the storage of chairs occupies space.

225. Desks.—Staff desks should be chosen carefully for the purpose in view. The best desk is a flat-topped one, equipped with drawers with fittings for card indexes and vertical files. Where the desk is situated in a public space, a roll-top design is suggested to enable work in progress to be left safely. It is, however, an inducement to untidiness! Ordinary flat tables, with drawers, are suitable for routine and mechanical operations.

For large reference libraries where an elevated superintendent's desk is necessary, the problem is a special one, to be settled by an examination of the central desks at the British Museum and the Manchester Central Library in comparison with the forms of desk-counter used in Birmingham and in the Mitchell Library, Glasgow.

226. Lecture Room.—Furniture and fittings for children's departments and lecture rooms require special consideration (see Divisions XI, XII). In the lecture room the principal fittings are the platform and the fittings connected with the use of the lantern. Platforms should be wide, and should be as long as it is possible to make them having regard to economy of space in the room. A height of three feet is suitable, and the structure should be solid, so that it may not echo or squeak beneath the tread, and a covering of some sound-deadening material—thick cork-lino or cocoanut-matting—is desirable. A counter or fixed table running along the front has been found useful, and to this water, gas, and similar fittings may be connected for use in science lectures; but this counter is not usually required, and it may obstruct the screen and will certainly prevent the use of the platform for dramatic and similar representations for which a clear stage is necessary. Green baize hangings as a background and front curtains of this material are very effective for several purposes. The platform should so be placed that it can be reached by the lecturers without the necessity of passing through the audience.

For lantern screen a smooth wall finished off in flat white, or better still, in a dull silver, should be used, but where this is impossible a rigid is preferable to a rolling screen as giving a surface free from folds and kinks. Screens should be kept per-

*[Library.]*

FIG. 62.—Vertical Slotted Periodical Shelves with Rack for Newspaper Hand-grip files (Section 226).

fectly clean, as dirt injures the effect of slides incalculably. The lantern itself should be of the electric arc variety, as being easy to manage and always ready with little delay, especially where

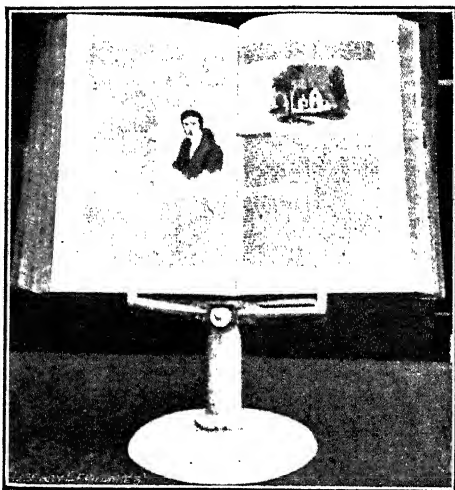


FIG. 63.—Metal Reading Easel (Section 221).

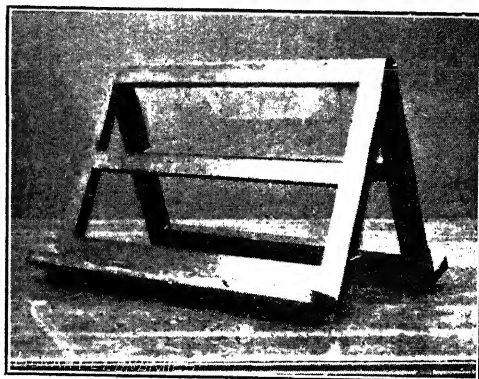


FIG. 64.—Wooden Reading Easel (Section 221).

the "direct" electric current is available. It is best installed in a room outside, or a gallery closed in from, the lecture room, the projection being made through an opening. An electric signal which provides at the platform a push for the use of the

lecturer, and sounds a " buzzer " or flashes a small lamp in the operator's apartment, is probably the best form of lantern signal.

The chairs in lecture rooms should be as comfortable as means will allow. There are possibilities in folding chairs here, especially where the room serves other uses than for lectures. The Tan Sad chair is a good example. Quiet floor coverings should be used in the room, and indeed, all fittings and furniture should produce that ease of body which will allow the mind to occupy itself exclusively with what is going on upon the platform.

227. Staff Rooms.—Hitherto, in general, only furniture for public rooms has been considered. There will be required carefully designed furniture for the administration department, and where they exist the cataloguing room, the bindery, file rooms and staff rest or sitting-rooms. Here again, in each case, the aim should be to get furniture which is of the right size and enables the operations to be performed with the minimum of fatigue. The TABLES FOR TYPISTS and other clerical workers should be of the right height, and chairs which are designed to take the



[*Libraeo.*
FIG. 65.—Ordinary Reading Room
Chair (Sections 222–224).

weight of the body correctly and to permit lateral movement. TABLES FOR CATALOGUERS should be equipped on their tops with shelves not only to take the books in process but to carry codes and the reference books in constant use, and there must be receptacles here or close by for all the pads, stamps, knives, cards, scissors, labels, adhesives and other materials employed. In the cataloguing room there must be shelves for new books, and the most-used reference guides such as dictionaries of languages and biography, catalogues and bibliographies, atlases and other tools. It is economy to duplicate these for this department in a large library, especially

when the room is well away from the reference library; the cost of delay in visiting another department to verify a fact in terms of salary would quickly exceed that of the books. Card cabinets and filing cabinets for cards and pamphlets, and publishers' catalogues are other obvious furniture. In the



FIG. 66.—Reference Library Chair
(Sections 222-224). [*Libraco.*]

a table for the sewing-frame, racks for tools, a gas or electric stove for heating water, glue, etc., cupboards for leather, cloth, paper, and other materials, a guillotine and hand-press. In FILE ROOMS racks, shelves or pigeon-holes, of a size to take the periodicals must be provided, as also tables where they can be examined by the staff. Every library should have a room with ample table space for the packing of cases, wrapping of parcels, etc., and this should be adjacent to an exit for the packages. STAFF COMMON ROOMS, and indeed several of the matters touched upon here, have been dealt with in Section 140 and in other parts of this work. It is most desirable to provide a reasonably comfortable room for the staff, where simple meals can be taken and where assistants can rest in brief

off-duty periods. These rooms may contain the librarianship periodicals and other literature which specially interests librarians, and an arm-chair or two, a rug on the floor and a few pictures are not extravagances.

REPAIRS to furniture are a definite item in the library expenditure. Daily inspection of all articles in use should reveal damage or wear and tear, and the only safe plan is to deal with every case immediately.

DIVISION IV

BOOK SELECTION AND ACCESSION

CHAPTER XIII

BOOK SELECTION

228. General Principles.—Book selection can now be based upon considerations which are almost scientific. It must be obvious that in the ordinary library the main business of the librarian is to supply the literary needs of his people, and this can only be done when he has knowledge of their habits, degrees of education, occupations and desires; and much of this comes only with experience. It may be assumed, however, that the librarian has acquired a knowledge of literature in the academic sense; that is to say, of those works which by common consent are our literary heritage; but also is familiar with bibliographies of all kinds, the characteristic products of certain publishers, and the general qualities required in the physical make-up of books. Book selection is the most responsible and difficult part of librarianship, and skill in it comes from careful observation and continuous experiment. In a few libraries every book published, in England at least, is sought for, as is the case in the British Museum, but even there *foreign* books must be selected; and in the largest of other libraries selection is imperative.

229. It will be sufficient to show in proof of this that the annual output of the publishers in England alone now reaches 16,000 volumes. To be precise, *The English Catalogue* for 1935 shows for that year the following figures:

New books	9,687
Translations	442
Pamphlets	1,140
New editions	4,871

. 16,140

Of the new books, 1,963 were works of fiction, and this left a balance of 7,724 in all classes of literature which the librarian had to sift in one way or another. Of course a proportion of these books does not come within the scope of the ordinary library and may be ignored; certain pamphlets and tracts, school books of many kinds and Bibles are examples. Even with these deductions the remainder is formidable. It must be remembered, too, that there is a small but desirable field of selection in the works published by overseas British publishers; and there is also the much greater one of American publications. Moreover, all libraries of any size at all now contain a selection from foreign literature, especially fiction and *belles-lettres* in the more popular languages. The funds available in most libraries are shown in the tables in Sections 64-66 to be very limited, and, therefore, the work of book-selection is the severest test of the capacity of the library committee and staff to give what is best and most desirable and vital within these narrow funds. We say that the books must be those which are vital, because the modern library cannot afford a permanent home to any work which has ceased to be useful, and although it is impossible with any measure of accuracy to forecast the lasting properties of a book, this fact should be borne in mind. And when books have lost their value they should be discarded, as we show below, without sentimentality. Their presence in a modern library hinders effective use and administration, because they occupy valuable space; they add much to the cost of cataloguing, and in other ways are expensive without any compensating benefits.

230. The principle has been laid down that the librarian should study his community in relation to his book-selection. To the experienced librarian this seems to be a somewhat obvious requirement, and in a certain degree it is met as we have suggested. It has not been done yet, however, in any systematic or scientific manner. The new librarian studies the map of his area, its history, its population status, the occupations his people pursue, and, as much as he can, their social and recreative habits. He has to build up from what he knows to be their interests. If he can supply books which forward those interests he has the surest foundation on which to build. Recognition of these things has led to the work of the Graduate School of Librarianship at the University of Chicago, where of late years important studies in the reading of communities, and of groups of workers in various occupa-

tions have been carried out under the direction of Dr. Douglas Waples. When a library has been in operation for a time much may be learned by regular examination of the books to see how far they are used and, more discreetly, of the people to see who reads them, by such methods as are mentioned in Section 97. In such an examination it is assumed that the library has made easy the possible use of the books, by display, adequate cataloguing and such advertisement as a good library uses. It is not advisable to judge the issue record of a book unless its opportunities for being used are known.

231. Over thirty years ago James Duff Brown laid it down that there were "not more than 50,000 books excluding duplicates of popular works worthy of presentation in any public library. The truth is that of real, living works of literary and human interest, there are perhaps not more than 20,000 in the English language, but we prefer the large figure to cover the world's literary output. Let any one who doubts this try to compile a list of even 5,000 books of permanent literary or other interests, in order to find what an awful task it is." Quite obviously the figures are conjectural rather than proved; many books have been published since these words were written in 1903, and the average of literary achievement is higher now than at that time. The crux of the argument, however, lies in the words "worthy of preservation," because there has been a definite movement, initiated by Brown himself, away from the idea that a library must preserve all the books it acquires; it certainly must not do so. A library may be a living and a growing entity as it has been described, but it is the living that really matters. Therefore, while it must contain the classics, which are necessarily alive, it must have many books which make appeal only to their own time; books of information, as nearly all books on science, useful arts, reference books, journalistic accounts of events and so on; books of the utmost interest in their day but most unlikely to be "worthy of preservation." Such a consideration will probably raise the figure of 20,000 indefinitely, and any attempt at a rule to-day would be ridiculous.

232. As a result of these considerations the old ideal of libraries which in the, to us, beautiful futile phrase of Bacon "are the shrines where all the relics of the ancient saints, full of true virtue, and that without delusion or imposture, are preserved and reposed," has given way to the active, open store of books for every day and every man in which their

repose is the last thing desired; and this ideal is no less romantic, if less beautifully described, than Bacon's. It is because of this that the modern library building has become the place of spaciouly-set shelves in well-lighted and cheerfully decorated rooms designed to induce the reader to exploit it fully. When that ideal is served it is possible, as indeed it is necessary in large towns, to collect great collections of books in stack rooms, the use of which may be occasional. The larger the library the more imperative it is that it should be larger still, because such libraries serve vast populations in which every possible human interest past and present that is represented in literary form may emerge and require to be served; but the modern need must be adequately met first.

233. Attempts have been made at various times by different authorities to lay down the proportions of every class of literature which should be represented in public libraries. The following figures are given for what they are worth, and not by any means as a hard and fast guide to be followed :

PERCENTAGES OF CLASSES OF LITERATURE REPRESENTED
IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES, ETC.

Class 000	General Works	3
100	Philosophy	4
200	Religion	5
300	Sociology	7
400	Philology	4
500	Science	9
600	Useful Arts	9
700	Fine and Recreative Arts	7
800	Literature	28
900	History	8
	Biography	8
	Travel	8

100

There are one or two changes which modern practice will make probable in these percentages, such as increases in the percentages of classes 5-7 and a decrease in class 8. The attention now bestowed upon technical education and the universal provision of music texts will almost inevitably increase these classes at the expense of some other classes.

234. Imaginative literature naturally occupies first place in

the quantities given, and needs at this date no elaborate justification. The poets, dramatists and story-tellers are the delineators and teachers of the race, and when their work is vital it endures. This is why fiction, which, as Jane Austen affirmed, has occupied the highest minds of men, is still, and will always remain, however it may change in non-essentials, the principal form of literature. The Malaprop-Absolute view of fiction may still appeal to journalists and folk in whom blindness to fact, and we fear a certain hypocrisy, exist, but the average man reads, and ought to read, fiction. People who read fiction exclusively are probably fewer than is generally supposed, and their assumed preponderance is often based upon a misreading of the statistics which count a novel of 200 pages that can be read in an evening and (say) John Richard Green's *Short History of England*—which is by no means short—equally as *one* volume; and do not reveal the fact that one reader may read twenty such novels while another individual reader is compassing Green. All the old arguments against fiction, as Dr. Henry Guppy has said wisely, are arguments for better fiction and not against that form of literature.

235. Best Books.—Classics in all classes form the basis of the stock; but in every library there must necessarily be a large number of works that have not achieved that rank. It cannot be forgotten that popular—and indeed many other libraries—have to cater for readers whose literary tastes are not yet developed, and for the relaxed moods of those who have such tastes. It is idle to suppose that any number of readers devote themselves continuously and exclusively to the severer forms of literature; and the recreative side of the library, as expressed in popular works of science, travel or anything else, is a legitimate and necessary side. The ideal then is to supply the classic works in their best form, the best works in all branches of knowledge, and, in addition, a large number of books of a quite popular type. It is only when popular works are added without discrimination and to the exclusion of a balanced representation of better works that they become objectionable. All such books are bought subject to the understanding that they are to be discarded when their day is past. Every movement which stirs the public mind and imagination produces a crop of books, but only a small proportion of these are worthy of preservation. No one can argue against a supply of such works at the time when public interest is aroused, but they must not be preserved after all interest in their subjects has waned. If a municipal

library two hundred years old, which had steadily collected throughout its life, could be found, its contents would include quantities of forgotten theology, history, biography, science, fiction and every other class, which would not now excite the slightest interest. The skimmings of such a library would no doubt be valuable, and a fair proportion of it be of interest and use, but the bulk of it would not.

236. The general public is comparatively indifferent to bibliographical rarities, and books which are merely curious or scarce should not usually be bought from the restricted funds of British municipal libraries. There is a certain advantage in making a small special collection, on the museum plan, to trace and illustrate the evolution and history of printing and of the book from the original manuscript forms, and to exhibit really fine book-production, but the general collecting of incunabula and rare specimens of typography by any but the very largest modern municipal libraries is neither possible nor desirable. There is more wisdom in spending £50 in a selection of modern technical works of service to living persons, than in spending the same amount in the purchase of a rare Bible which appeals to a few students. Books must not be regarded as an investment on which a profit can be made by a sale at some future date, because books of bibliographical rarity and much monetary value bought from public funds should remain inalienable public property; they are machinery or plant, to be renewed when necessary and kept thoroughly abreast of the times.

237. Returning to the question of buying and preserving books of temporary interest. Every important current subject is represented in its day by loads of books and pamphlets, but the whole of these are sifted and epitomized by later historians in works of permanent value, and municipal libraries simply buy these, and leave the preservation of the contemporary literature, the original authorities, to the care of special libraries which exist for the purpose. The literature of the Great European War, 1914-1919, or much of it, is already of faded interest. It is necessary for public libraries, while public interest is keen, to meet the legitimate desire of readers for masses of material pouring from the press, but presently all this will be condensed into a few classics, giving in a sufficient manner every fact of interest to posterity, and the ephemeral works can be discarded. What remains of value to students, or even ordinary readers, from the huge literature which arose from the Crimean War? Only Kinglake and perhaps two popular illustrated books.

The same holds good with all subjects which have created immense contemporary literatures, and there need be no compunction about discarding any book when its usefulness is past unless it becomes itself a classic. At a later stage some suggestions on book discarding or library weeding are given, which may prove helpful.

238. Book selection should be conducted upon the sound principle of buying the best representative works on all subjects, whatever may be their cost or place of origin. Some definite problems arise in connection with certain classes and types of book. The larger library excludes little or nothing of merit; the smaller one does not as a rule provide text-books which are normally a part of the cost of formal education, as it is obviously impossible to supply every boy or girl with their school-books. The rule, if it be one, is often broken. Keys should only be provided with safeguards against their wrong use, a sound argument in most cases for their exclusion. Smaller libraries cannot be expected to possess medical or law collections as these are expensive to maintain and the works are liable to misuse. Simple, acknowledged works on general law or medicine are of course admissible. Only the larger libraries can be expected to provide for the specialist in any subject in his ultimate studies. The buying of cheap series and libraries of reprints must be viewed with suspicion. They are often mere commercial ventures of small literary or other value; and in the case of editions of standard authors, such uniform series are sometimes the worst form in which they can be presented to a reader. Series devoted to art, science, literature or history often have as their main merit the advantage of being bound uniformly. There are, however, several well-known series of works of value. A word may be permitted on the nationality of books. The best and most recent scientific works should be bought without regard to the nationality of their authors.

239. Duplication.—A vexed question is that of the buying of more than one copy of certain books. It is a sound rule that a library must be representative, but when once that difficult rule has been obeyed, a librarian with his finger on the pulse of public demand and need will find it desirable, even necessary, to buy several copies of certain books. A recent example was T. E. Lawrence's *The Seven Pillars of Wisdom*, the requests for which were so many that to provide one copy only in a reasonably large library was merely to irritate hundreds of readers.

The argument that the final place of the book has not yet been determined is no doubt just, but popular books wear out so rapidly that the copies will be duly sifted ; and meanwhile readers have been served. What the number of copies should be only the individual experience of libraries can determine. It will be found that, although the almost universal temporary demand is occasionally for such a book as that of Lawrence's, it is usually for a novel ; for example, J. B. Priestley's *The Good Companions* was the last work that everybody wanted ; and it is regrettably true that few libraries can satisfy all such demands immediately.

240. Replacements and Out-of-Print Books.—Replacement of worn-out books is a recurrent, necessary and serious expense in most libraries, and one which gravely reduces possible expenditure upon new books. The serious reader wants the most recent edition of his book and this should be available if possible. Every new edition should be examined before purchase as some publishers confuse the word edition with reprint. Before replacing an old, dirty or defective book it should be carefully considered if it is worth retaining in the library. So far as modern novels are concerned some are so transient that some librarians never replace any novel that is not of known rank, allowing the others to disappear quietly from the stock ; if they are alive there will be requests for them and then they may be replaced.

Closely connected with the question of replacements is the matter of out-of-print books. Most librarians have been confronted with the difficulty of obtaining books which have been allowed to go out of print. Among them are occasionally works which have a recognized place in English literature. In course of time a library's copies of these books are worn out, and it becomes desirable to replace them. Temporary relief is sometimes obtained by advertising for second-hand copies. It is only with books that are frequently cited in other books or in newspapers that this matter has any importance. The fact that a book is entered in library catalogues is no evidence of its permanence ; but where a demand still exists of which publishers are not aware, the combined efforts of librarians might induce republication. Usually speaking, however, the fact that a book has remained out of print for more than a year or two is evidence of the absence of public demand for it, and seeing that novel-writing is probably at a higher general level now than at any earlier period (in spite of the lack of individual Fieldings or

Jane Austens), we are of opinion that such out-of-print books may be withdrawn from the library records as suggested above for worn-out novels, and the gaps left made good by more modern works of equal merit and greater popularity. After all, and especially so far as *imaginative literature* is concerned—and these remarks apply almost exclusively to that—it is no part of the work of the library to revive what public opinion, the soundest *ultimate* guide, has permitted to perish; more especially as booksellers charge exaggerated prices for out-of-print novels, whatever their merit may be. In the case of some of the older books which form landmarks in literary history, it is absolutely necessary to have well-edited modern reprints for the benefit of the students who are being formed in every school in the kingdom.

Books which are purchased to replace worn-out copies need not receive new numbers, but may be given the numbers of the books which they replace.

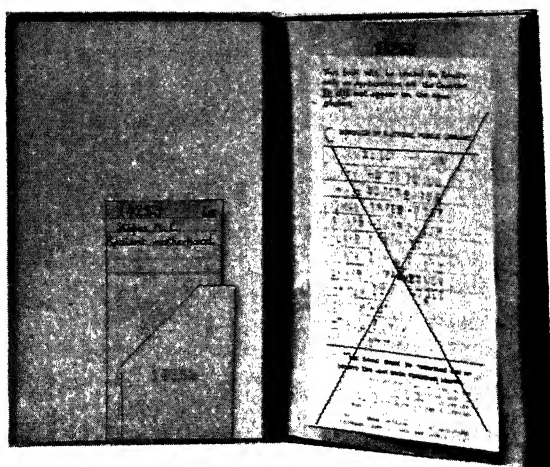
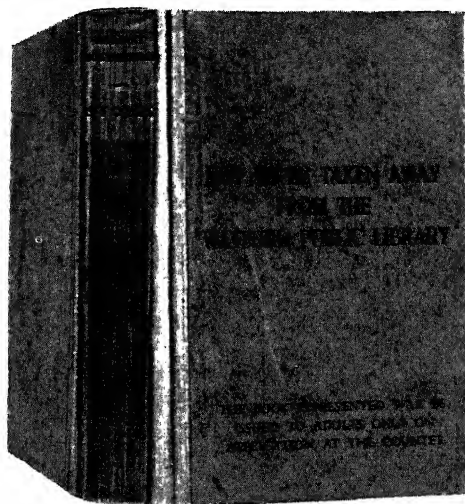
241. Doubtful Books.—Library authorities are often called upon to accept responsibility for the books on their shelves, but censorship is not exercised systematically in this country. It is usual to require books to be law-abiding in the broad interpretation of that term, but it is essential that no political or sectarian bias shall influence the exclusion of good books. In the question of sexual morality the matter is extremely difficult. If a library exercises the censorship of exclusion here, all concerned with it will be accused shrilly of prurience and other equally pleasant propensities; if it is not exercised, they will be accused of exposing impressionable youth to immoral suggestion. There is a police censorship of this matter, and by some it is contended that this is sufficient. The average librarian knows that it is not thought to be so by a large part of the community. As a general rule the only censorship exercised is that of exclusion; there does not seem to be any reason why works which offend the current common views of morality should be bought out of common funds; but the hypersensitive objections of the narrow-minded should not be mistaken for genuine expressions of those views. The Irish librarian is at least guided in this matter, as an official censorship forbids him any exercise of judgment in respect of definitely-listed books. For the British librarian one solution seems to be to exclude from open shelves works to which any objection is made which to a common-sense mind seems to be legitimate, but not to withdraw them from the library or the catalogues. The whole

intention is to protect immaturity from immoral books, and the doubtful librarian may be comforted with the truth expressed by John Ruskin that no innocent child was ever harmed by novels, although he might be indefinitely warped by false history, science or other bastard knowledge. Further, what is immorality and what is immaturity every library authority will probably determine for itself.

There are, of course, books that have real value which it may be thought necessary to keep from some readers. For these Mr. George R. Bolton has devised the method shown by the illustration (Figs. 66a, 66b). A dummy of blank leaves with a case bearing the name of the author and the title, substitutes the book on the shelves, and in the book itself is the statement that the book is issued to adults only on application and will not appear on the shelves.

242. Reference and Lending Books.—It is not always easy to determine whether a book will give best service in the reference or in the lending department. About such quick-reference works as encyclopædias, dictionaries, annuals, directories, atlases, large art works, etc., there can be little doubt, but expensive scientific books, large works of travel, theological and historical works of a certain kind offer a problem much more complicated. As reference libraries are sometimes constituted, the plan of putting all expensive books in the reference department may mean that they will be seldom used. In open access reference libraries which are liberally conducted, a good deal may be said in favour of placing such books there. They will be freely accessible without formality, while the advantage of certain reference books being always on the premises is not to be overlooked. No harm can result from the placing of expensive text-books in the lending department, and if they are not on loan they are available for any reference reader who wants them. The advantage to a student of being able to take a recondite and expensive text-book home with him for comparison with, and as an aid to, his own books is undeniable, and it is the fact that, by co-operation, the citizens of a town can thus procure otherwise unattainable books, which makes the Public Libraries Acts so valuable, and adds force to the plea for placing expensive works within easy reach of the majority of readers. Local circumstances will in most cases modify the conditions under which reference and lending libraries are built up and differentiated. In some places there is no separation, save in the catalogue, between the reference and lending libra-

ries, and this is the modern tendency ; in others both departments are not only kept apart, but subdivided into open, special



FIGS. 66A-66B.—Dummy of Restricted Books and Labels used inside it (Section 241).

and store collections. All this is very much a matter of administration to be settled in accordance with local requirements.

We deal with this question more in detail in the chapters on the Reference Library (Division X).

243. Special Collections.—The most necessary work of the library, after it has formed its general collection, is to collect local literature ; this we deal with in a separate chapter. Most public libraries possess some kind of special collection in addition to the purely local collection. Examples of these may be specified in the Shakespeare and Cervantes collections at Birmingham ; the Burns and Scottish poetry collections at Glasgow ; music, shorthand, Chinese books, etc., at Manchester ; fishes at Cheltenham ; Welsh literature at Cardiff, etc. The literature of special local industries should always be collected. Representative works in foreign languages, particularly French, German, Spanish and Italian, should also be collected, in addition to the Greek and Latin classics ; and the large and more cosmopolitan cities may endeavour to represent every foreign literary output so far as their circumstances warrant and their finances permit.

244. Sets of Periodicals.—Some discrimination is required in the collecting of periodicals. Larger libraries secure and preserve sets of all magazines of value which they can accommodate ; but obviously the expense of the practice, the ephemeral character of much of this type of literature, and the large amount of shelf space it requires, make that practice impossible for any but large libraries. Ephemeral, but otherwise wholesome, magazines may be used unbound for issue in lending libraries to good purpose ; or may be bound and so used—but not replaced when they are worn out. Only periodicals which have a *reference* value should be retained in sets, and then only where the geographical situation of the library warrants that course. A smaller town near a great town library may reasonably refer its readers to that library for sets of expensive periodicals. The Library Association publishes the *Subject Index to Periodicals*, an indispensable tool for all librarians, and the H. W. Wilson Company of New York also publishes invaluable indexes of this kind ; and for periodicals which are not available locally, readers must be referred to the nearest library which files them. The *Index*, moreover, gives a list of the principal periodicals, and is a rough guide to assessing their permanent worth as well as an admirable key to their contents.¹

¹ It is hoped that in time the National Central Library may be able to secure sets of all the principal periodicals from which it may be able to lend to other libraries. This, however, is beyond present means.

245. Music.—Nearly every public library of any importance has now established a music collection. The Henry Watson Library is a great music collection at Manchester; while Bourne-mouth has the J. B. M. Camm Music Library, both being separate departments of the public library. The average library must usually work on a scale smaller than this; and the general experience is that it is one of the most popular and appreciated sections in the library. The provision should not at first extend to more than collections of pianoforte, violin, organ and vocal music in the form of bound volumes; operas, oratorios, cantatas and other vocal scores; the scores, especially miniature scores, of orchestral and chamber compositions; and text-books on theory, history and various instruments. Collections of the songs of the best modern composers may be formed and bound up into volumes. The compositions of local composers should always be collected. Single sheet music, and such composite sheet forms as quartets, trios and duets, are difficult to handle, but it is clear that such works can only give their best service if separate. Library binders should consider how to treat sheet music at a cost for binding per sheet not exceeding the cost of the sheet itself. Some libraries cover sheet music in manila for separate issue. In collecting songs it should be the custom to get them in the keys for the various voices. This, of course, means from two to four copies of many songs. A really good music library is expensive to acquire and, because music gets very rough treatment, expensive to maintain. In providing shelving for music, it is well to have special cases with uprights only eighteen inches apart, as it is very difficult to consult long rows of thin quarto books, owing to the weight of the books. This, however, applies to quarto and folio books generally. Recent suggestions include a section of gramophone records and Sir Walford Davies advocated in every library a sound-proof room, with gramophone and piano for trying them. Few libraries in England have yet provided these rooms, although they are common in large libraries in America.

246. Illustrations.—Collections of illustrations, as described later in Section 550, are now made in many libraries. Some libraries also collect engravings, prints and etchings, especially in towns without an art gallery, partly perhaps for their artistic interest, but primarily as records of places or things. There is no doubt that prints and engravings which illustrate historical events have immense practical value. Portraits, too,

are valuable and useful, as are specimens of the etched work of great artists; engravings after the masters; engravings and prints depicting leading events in history; and pictures illustrating costume, ceremonials, manners and customs, disappearing buildings, great engineering works, topographical changes, and so on.

¹ **247. Photographs.**—Collections of photographs which deal with local matters should be made by every public library (see Chapter XXVIII). Certain American libraries also collect photographs of great pictures and those which represent various natural forms. Studies for the use of artists are also collected, mounted on cards, and made accessible, and some of these attempts to popularize art should be made in British libraries. Photographs are comparatively cheap, and almost every kind of picture and study can be obtained in this medium. What is particularly required is some kind of practical list or guide, drawn up by an expert, from which libraries could make their selections. A systematic list covering the various arts of design, historical painting, sculpture, architecture, etc., would be of great service. Photographs of great public events, ceremonials, buildings, and of eminent personages, would have to be purchased according to means, and, as every one knows, this might be made an endless matter. There is no reason, however, why public libraries should not preserve good photographs of the most eminent authors, artists, musicians, scientists, military commanders, royal personages, etc. Portraits of such persons are not always easy to find in books when required, especially as the *A.L.A. Portrait-Index* is limited in scope; therefore a separate collection of portraits in alphabetical order would be a valuable addition to a public library. In this connexion it is useful to remove portraits of celebrities, views, etc., from worn-out books and magazines, and preserve them along with all other appropriate matter.

¹ **248 Lantern Slides.**—It is often desirable to collect lantern slides on such subjects as local topography and history, or on topics which illustrate bibliographical and kindred subjects. These will be found very useful, and as the collection increases sets can be lent out to societies or individuals who require them for lectures. The cost of storing and cataloguing slides is not great, and they are undoubtedly a

¹ The matters thus marked are dealt with more fully under the Division on Reference Work and elsewhere, but are included here for the sake of giving a complete conspectus of the material involved in selection,—En.

valuable addition to the pictorial side of literature. Cinematographic films offer wide possibilities. Local films such as are shown in every town should be preserved if possible, but those on general subjects may more profitably be borrowed from the national film libraries that exist. Inflammable films must be stored in metal cases, in conditions which have the approval of the Fire authorities.

¹ **249. Trade and other Catalogues.**—A useful department, though somewhat difficult to maintain, is a collection of the best and most representative catalogues and price lists of all kinds of commodities. Several points arise in the work of forming such collections, and the question of policy is perhaps the most important here. Many firms will not give their price lists; and it may be considered invidious to select firms, thereby suggesting favouritism and unfair advertising. In some industries prices, ideas and designs are regarded as trade secrets, and doubtless jealousies might be stirred up in some quarters. But the fact remains that illustrated catalogues of books, furniture, ironmongery, machinery, pottery, art publications, scientific apparatus, etc., are often more generally useful than text-books or special trade and professional journals. Even pattern books of wall-papers, bookbinders' cloths, leather-work, typefounding and so forth are of immense service to special students, and an effort should be made to strengthen the literary side of suitable subjects by a judicious selection of the best illustrated trade catalogues.

¹ **250. Books for the Blind.**—A few libraries now store, and many more circulate, books for the blind in the Braille and Moon types, and in this work have been aided by the expert advice and actual donations of special societies interested in the well-being of the blind. There is an extensive and rapidly growing literature for the blind in the special raised type required for finger-reading, and a library of a few hundreds of volumes makes quite an imposing show. The question of space will arise in many places, because books for the blind are, as a rule, only embossed on one side of each page, and, owing to this embossing and the size of the type, some books make several thick quarto volumes. For this reason recourse can be made to the National Library for the Blind, with which it is suggested every public library at least should be in affiliation. The National Library for the Blind, Great Smith Street, Westminster, London (there is a branch at 5, St. John's Street, Manchester),

¹ See note, p. 200.

sends books direct by post to the actual reader, or distributes them, in small collections as desired, through other libraries. A reasonable subscription to this library is a legitimate and most worthy use of funds ; and its large ever-growing stock is a wonderful privilege to place at the disposal of sightless readers. An adaptation of the gramophone of immense use to the blind is the talking book, which consists of a portable machine and records so closely used that on a twelve-inch disc as many as 3,600 words are recorded, which can be reproduced at the speed of ordinary reading, and, indeed, adapted to the hearing pace of the "reader." Thus a book of 70,000 to 90,000 words can be provided on from ten to twelve double-sided records. This and other devices to bring books to the blind are under the supervision in England of the National Institute for the Blind, 224, Great Portland Street, London, which in this matter works in conjunction with St. Dunstan's.

¹251. Maps.—In addition to all local maps and plans, old and new, sets of the Ordnance and Geological Survey maps on the one-inch scale and on the six-inch scale for the locality, should be added. Atlases will exist in the reference library as a matter of course, but maps of the United Kingdom suitable for tourists, motorists, cyclists, anglers, climbers, etc., should be added as freely as possible.

252. Discarding Effete Books.—The question of the continuous weeding-out of a public library, with the object of keeping it current and of making room for additional stock, has already been partly discussed, and it is a most important part of modern public library policy. Where they exist the periodical reprinting of class lists affords a valuable opportunity for considering the claims of certain kinds of books to remain on the shelves, where they may be filling the space which should be available for more live works, and are obstructing the general work of the library. The stage at which books are due to be re-bound is an even more suitable opportunity for this exercise of judgment. Every public library receives occasionally books which must for reasons of policy be catalogued. Gifts, for example, are expected to be placed in the library and duly catalogued. There are hundreds of such books in some libraries which have no permanent value ; and these, and also the mistaken selections of committees and librarians, should be discarded as soon as possible. There are also, of course, the books which go out of use automatically, such as those noted in the

¹ See note, p. 200.

subjoined RULES. In experience it will be found that the average popular lending library renews its entire stock within a time extending from five to ten years, either for the reasons given or because of wear and tear. Weeding-out never ceases ; and when catalogues are reprinted, books are rearranged, or any kind of fresh movement is made, a favourable opportunity is afforded to remove works that have proved to be without value, or have lost it with the passage of time, or have been superseded. A *very* few books in almost every class are landmarks in their subjects and are to be retained for their historical values. In this day of co-operation this is rarely necessary however.

253. Rules for the Discarding of Useless Books :

SCIENCE.—All general works which are not of classic rank and have been efficiently superseded. All ordinary text-books of every science, save mathematics and occult science, may usually be discarded when ten years old.

USEFUL ARTS.—The same rule applies to this class as to Science. In large libraries patents, specifications, recipes, and books on household arts should be retained.

FINE ARTS.—Books must be discarded sparingly in this section, even though certain books, owing to the fashions that prevail periodically in the arts, seem to be obsolete. Collections of engravings, finely illustrated books, and collected music, not at all.

THEOLOGY AND PHILOSOPHY.—Systems of philosophy should never be discarded. Historical and explanatory text-books when superseded. Old theology, commentaries on the Bible, sectarian literature and sermons freely.

SOCIAL SCIENCE.—This class requires frequent revision, especially in the sections devoted to political economy, government, law and other topics. Books on questions of momentary interest can be replaced by historical résumés. Subjects such as law, government and political economy are constantly changing, even in the treatment of their history. Parliamentary reform, slavery and chartism are illustrations of once burning topics which may be better represented by a few comprehensive modern books than by collections of the voluminous literature attached to each subject.

LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.—Old grammars may be discarded without risk, and also ordinary school dictionaries,

- but rarely the larger dictionaries. Books on literary history, bibliography and librarianship should not be discarded.

PROSE FICTION.—Novelists mentioned in literary histories should never be discarded. Minor novelists of all kinds, not so mentioned, whose works have remained unissued for two years, should be discarded. Continuous popularity is a good reason (perhaps the best) for retaining an approved contemporary novel.

POETRY AND DRAMA.—Collected works should never be discarded unless efficiently superseded. But poets and dramatists, not recognized in literary histories and no longer read, may safely be discarded.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.—Historical works which are mere résumés, and not themselves original authorities, may be discarded with comparative safety. Works of travel of the ordinary globe-trotting description may be discarded when ten years old, along with all kinds of guide-books, save those which are local. Pioneer works of exploration should be retained. Old gazetteers are, as a rule, useless in small libraries, but some of the illustrated ones, like Lewis's for Britain, may be retained for their armorial illustrations, and any considerable gazetteer, even if old and unused, should be offered to a larger library before it is destroyed. Histories which are literary classics, like Hume, Robertson, Clarendon, should be kept.

BIOGRAPHY.—Collected biography should never be discarded. Individual lives of persons whose importance has disappeared may, however, be discarded after they are from forty to fifty years old.

MISCELLANEOUS.—Discard old encyclopædias with care; newspapers or directories, other than local, freely. Periodicals are carefully selected nowadays and only those are preserved which are worthy of a place in the *L.A. Index* or similar keys (see Section 244). The isolated library may retain more sets of periodicals than one in a suburban district.

GENERAL.—1. All works that are defective should be discarded, or at any rate withdrawn from general circulation.

A book defective in a plate or a section or two can sometimes be completed by an application to the publisher for the missing part, which is usually forthcoming at small cost. Where this is impossible and the value of the book

warrants it, a copy can usually be borrowed from another library, from which the missing part of the text can be typed, and sometimes the plates photographed, and inserted in the defective copy.

A ruthless policy with dirty books is a public duty and economy. Especially does this remark apply to classics: clean copies should always be available. Many of the criticisms levelled at libraries have been due to neglect of this matter.

2. Formerly it was laid down that well-illustrated books in every class should be retained, even if their text had been superseded. It is better to extract all the illustrations and use them in the illustrations collection, described later, and to discard the text.

3. Local books, whatever their subjects, should never be discarded; *i.e.*, books on the locality, by local authors, or produced locally. These are also dealt with later.

254. None of the foregoing recommendations for discarding applies to bibliographical rarities or curiosities or to special collections. They apply simply to the rank and file of literature, the 50 per cent. of the fruits of the press which become stale with time. The question of how to dispose of discarded books can generally be decided by some local circumstance. It is hardly necessary to point out that books which are not good enough or fresh enough for a central library, are not good enough for a branch library. It has been suggested that lists of the discarded books should be printed in the bulletin, if there is one, or, failing that, in a separate form. It is useful to afford readers the opportunity of judging the weeding out of the library, and any serious objection to a book being removed can be heard. The practical objection is that many libraries discard books so rapidly that such printing is an expensive way of reaching the occasional critic. The claims of the National Central Library should be remembered in this matter and every discarded book which is not a physical ruin may be submitted to its judgment. Faded works in every branch of knowledge may have a possible reader somewhere to whom they are of much value, and this library will determine if the book is worth retaining in this central reservoir against such use. It is also probably desirable, now that regional co-operative schemes exist, for a policy of discarding to be devised for each region so that no book of character is altogether lost.

Books which are discarded should not be permitted to leave the library unless stamped, to indicate that they are rejected. A stamp with a movable dating centre should be used, with the words, "Public Library, Discarded," in a circle.

255. Practical Methods of Selection.—The application of the principles laid down requires organized effort, and ability and willingness to make use of the work of experts and of bibliographers. A new library is built up with the aid of the many general and special bibliographies, a knowledge of which is an indispensable part of the librarian's equipment, such as Sonnenschein's *Best Books*, Nelson's *Standard Books*, Minto's *Reference Books*, Mudge's *Guide to Reference Books*, Grose's *Sources and Literature of European History*, Rickman's *Index Psychoanalyticus*, 1893–1926, Thomas's *Bibliography of Anthropology*, Baker's *Guide to the Best Fiction*, and Nield's *Guide to the Best Historical Novels*, to name only a few. The more important of these are listed in the Appendix (The Librarian's Library). The *Reference Catalogue of Current Literature*, which is issued periodically, gives a clue to most books in print; and various American select catalogues are valuable, such as the H. W. Wilson *Standard Catalogue* and the bibliographies issued by the Library of Congress. The National Book Council issues a series of bibliographies of special subjects sponsored by experts. Catalogues of reputable libraries may give much assistance. Many works which are not primarily bibliographies are not to be overlooked; for examples, for British biography there is no better guide than the lists of books at the end of the articles in the *Dictionary of National Biography*; for science and technology the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux issues an invaluable quarterly *ASLIB Booklist*; and for adolescent readers the Library Association has published *Books for Youth* (third edition, 1936), a basic catalogue of books for young readers, elaborately described and indexed. For children's books there are many guides, amongst which Stevenson's *The Child's Bookshelf*, select catalogue published by various public libraries, among them Bethnal Green, Glasgow, and Sheffield, and from Canada the capital one from Toronto, while the excellent American *Guide to Literature for Children* by Field may be consulted.

256. For current literature full English lists appear weekly in the *Publisher's Circular*, which is edited by an able librarian and is cumulated yearly as the *English Catalogue of Books*, and again at five yearly intervals under the same title; Whitaker's

Cumulative Book List, which is issued quarterly, cumulated at six and nine months and again annually, and the Wilson Company's *Cumulative Book Index* (on much the same principle) is to be consulted for new American publications. Books are selected in useful lists published in the *Library Review*, and the several library bulletins issued quarterly or at other intervals by many libraries may be used as checks, although they are usually in the nature of things a little behind the most recent publications, and probably should be. The Association of Assistant Librarians issues a very brief monthly highly-selective annotated list of *Books Recommended*, which is the best thing of its kind available. The American Library Association publishes an excellent annotated and classified monthly, *The A.L.A. Booklist*.

257. Reviews of a general character appear in many journals, the best on a comprehensive scale is probably *The Times Literary Supplement* (weekly), but the special journals and reviews—there is one for every art, science and other department of knowledge—must all be watched. This account by no means exhausts the sources of selection.

258. A librarian must devise means by which systematic examination is made of all these sources, so that a consensus of opinion on each book may be available. Even so, it is often unsatisfactory to buy by announcements or reviews, and an examination of all important books is desirable. Children's books should never be bought without examination. To allow of this most publishers are willing to submit their books on approval, and some libraries maintain subscriptions with large commercial circulating libraries through which new books may be tested. It must be clear that no single person can compass all this literature: the main difficulties of small libraries arise from this fact. It is hoped that shortly the Library Association may come to their assistance with the lists which we say are now under consideration. In large libraries book-selection is portioned out amongst the members of the staff, certain members being responsible for certain subjects, or for a certain group of reviews and catalogues, and the results of their work are sifted by the librarian or some other senior official before purchases are made. Every member of staff should be encouraged to watch the demands of readers, to specialize in some subject, and regularly to share in this all important work of building and maintaining a living stock of books.

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- For articles, see Cannons, N. Book-Selection, Order and Accession Methods, and Library Literature, pp. 38-40.

CHAPTER XIV

ACCESSION METHODS

260. Most of the books added to the stock are selected by the librarian, with the aids we have described, and after consultation of such experts as are available ; and they are purchased after examination by the appropriate committee, as suggested in Section 57. To the practical work of book-selection the librarian brings all the method he can ; he may divide the work of examining reviews, catalogues of booksellers, the prospectuses and announcements of publishers, and the actual paying of visits to publishing houses and booksellers' shops, amongst the members of his staff in whose competence he confides. The work is a routine, and every review or catalogue examined should be marked, and a slip or card written of the book-entry, with particulars of the origin of the suggestion ; thus :

KEYNES, J. M.

The General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money.
Macmillan. 5s. 0d.

Observer, 7551 : 9 (+)
T.L.S., 1780 : 213 (+)
Sun. T. 23.2.36 : 6 (—)
Time and Tide. Feb. 8 : 190 (+)
British W. 2576 : 464 (+)

FIG. 67.—Librarian's Suggestions Slip (Section 260).

The slip indicates that five different persons have read reviews of the work in different journals ; each has written a temporary slip giving the source of the review, using + when it is favourable and — when unfavourable. These opinions are

brought together on one final or master slip as shown and the value of that slip to the librarian in selection and in convincing his books sub-committee and its after value to the cataloguing staff are incalculable. The example is a rather extreme case ; most books are reviewed in one or two journals only. Moreover, for many books the librarian does not need reviews, as the authors and their merits are known. To consult with experts is a practice that is usual and to be encouraged, so long as they do not acquire so great an influence that they are able to divert an undue proportion of the book-fund to their special subjects. A proper perspective, which brings into right proportion the wants and needs of all types of readers, is essential.

261. Readers' Suggestions.—Readers should be encouraged to make known their book-needs, and it is the general practice to display prominently notices inviting readers to use a Suggestions Book which is kept in a visible place, or the slips which are placed conveniently about the library. Committees usually deal sympathetically with suggestions so far as it is in their power to do so, although the old complaint made in the early editions of this MANUAL that “there are comparatively few suggestions of books made by readers in public libraries” is in our experience no longer true, except in libraries where they are not encouraged. Indeed the use of slips, placed, as we have said, about the library, in the form shown, which is similar to that used at the University Library at Cambridge, has produced more suggestions than the whole book fund of the library using them could purchase. (See Fig. 68.)

This plenitude of suggestions is possibly due partly to the practice of giving the suggestor the first reading of the book when purchased. As a result there has arisen a type of reader who regards the suggestion method as a cheap way of getting the advantages of a highly-priced subscription library, scanning reviews for the book of the moment, or books by authors of such repute that the librarian buys them almost automatically, and suggesting them in the expectation of getting them before other readers. Suggestions are properly invited for the purpose of discovering gaps in the stock, and the serious reader must not be discouraged from making them. It is probably the best method to invite readers to *ask* for these slips or for the suggestions book rather than to place them too conveniently before them. A suggestion refused may make an irritated reader. Only experience can prove if the precautions

implied are necessary in any particular district. It is certain that even in libraries which appear to have fairly comprehensive stocks, suggestions often reveal that quite important books are wanting.

CROYDON PUBLIC LIBRARIES

READER'S RECOMMENDATION

Readers are asked to recommend any books which they think ought to be found in the Libraries. This form may be given to any member of the staff, or placed in the box provided on the counter.

Other suggestions or complaints (which should be signed) may be written on the back.

I desire to recommend the addition to the Libraries of the following book:—

Author

Title

Publisher..... Price.....

Reader's Name.....

Address

..... Date.....

For official use only:—

Committee's decision..... Added.....

FIG. 68.—Reader's Suggestions Slip (Section 261).

262. A suggestions book, if used, should be ruled as follows :

Date	Author	Title	Publisher and Price	Name and Address of Proposer	Result

FIG. 69.—Ruling of Reader's Suggestions Book (Section 262).

in the hope that the suggestor may be able to give adequate particulars, and sometimes he is, and, in any case, the ruling is useful to the staff in tracing them. It is desirable that all suggestors should be advised of the result of their suggestions ;

and, as we have said, it is a common practice to allow them to have the first use of the books; but this privilege should be reserved for those who suggest books which the librarian is convinced would in the ordinary way have been overlooked, and not be permitted for books which every well-managed library would buy in its routine. If there is any doubt, it is well to give the reader the benefit of it.

Suggestions are usually submitted to the committee as a separate list with all the particulars shown above.

263. Gifts.—The Public Libraries Act of 1850 made no provision for the purchase of books, as it was thought that books would be given by private benefactors. A short experience proved that the expectation was baseless, and the Acts were amended to permit their purchase. To this day gifts form a minor, although much appreciated, source of supply, although many of the gifts are of no great value. Citizens should be encouraged to give to the libraries, by indications that gifts are welcomed and appreciated. On the other hand, the Committee should reserve the right to reject any gift, or to accept it on conditions. The policy of taking everything offered with the proviso that the librarian may dispose of the individual items according to his judgment, has been found to work well. This prevents the limited space of the twentieth century library being cluttered up with books that their owner no longer wants himself but which his vanity leads him to believe should remain his monument in the library. In no circumstances is the mean and unwarranted practice of asking for gifts from authors and publishers to be tolerated, any more than requests would be for cleaning materials or furniture from their purveyors. All gifts should be acknowledged. Gifts of substantial value should be acknowledged by resolutions conveyed appropriately. Acknowledgments lead to other gifts, and for this reason they should be made as pleasantly as possible, and not by the curt and ungracious postcard. In fact postcards should only be used for quite impersonal communications. An individual signed letter is still the best way of expressing thanks, and few libraries receive so many gifts that this becomes burdensome.

The ruling of a gifts register, which some librarians find it advisable to keep, will be found to answer all ordinary purposes.

The gift number is a progressive number which should be given to all gifts, particularly books, because, when pencilled on volumes which are duplicates or not stocked for any reason,

it is easy to ascertain their history by turning up the number in the register. Most of the other headings explain themselves. When books are added to the library as gifts it is well to carry into this record the accession numbers given to them in the columns provided. In the "Remarks" column can be entered any information as to the disposal of the gifts. In some libraries a book is used which resembles a receipt book in having a counterfoil and a tear-off sheet forming a thanks circular or acknowledgment form. This style of book is less satisfactory than the form of record given above.

Donation No.	Date of Receipt.	Date of Acknowledgment.	Description of Gift.	No. of Vols.	Name and Address of Donor.	Accession Number.		Remarks.
						Lend.	Ref.	

FIG. 70.—Gifts Register Ruling (Section 263).

264. From all the sources indicated, and any others available, the librarian prepares his official book-list for the committee. Occasionally this list is dispensed with, the actual books being gathered "on approval" from the book-seller and submitted to the committee, and for the smaller library, where the space is available for their display and where the committee has the time to examine them—always a difficult question—this method has much to commend it. Usually, however, a book-list is required, and this is done best if it is duplicated and circulated to the committee at a given time before it meets. If the items in the list are numbered consecutively, any entry that comes under discussion can be referred to easily. The book-list is usually in two parts at least, 1, books suggested for purchase, and 2, books which have been bought on the authority of the chairman or librarian when they have that authority. This is usually given for urgent purchases of popular works in much

demand or for second-hand works which if they are to be acquired must usually be bought at once. Arising out of this part of the subject is the question of buying books at sales. This is usually done through a bookseller or other agent, who receives a marked copy of the catalogue, with the prices to be offered written against each entry, and for his services in attending and bidding 5 to 10 per cent. is generally allowed. Of course, at any book-sale in the same town as the library, the librarian may attend, but an experienced agent is more likely to avoid mistakes. Unfortunately few public libraries can afford to compete with booksellers and private collectors in the saleroom, and in practice this source of accessions is not of much use to the majority of British public libraries.

The entries in the list may be in classified order; and sometimes, where these are branch libraries, the allocation of copies is shown; and at the end there should be a summary of the cost. When the list has passed the committee, with whatever modifications they may have imposed, the books can be ordered as described below in Section 266.

265. Subscription Books.—Provision must be made in many libraries for the works coming regularly as annuals, or from societies to whose publications the library subscribes. Patents' specifications, parliamentary reports and other periodical publications also furnish a constant, if somewhat irregular, stream of additions. There should be some simple means of checking these annual and irregular publications, and a series of cards, somewhat similar to those suggested for magazines in Section 529, will be found very convenient. It is hardly necessary to add that these check-cards should be examined regularly for overdues and omissions. Societies which issue only occasional monographs are the most difficult to trace and check. With annual publications of a definite kind, such as *Whitaker's Almanack*, there is no trouble whatever.

266. Ordering.—The bulk of its books the library obtains through booksellers; the custom of the trade does not allow libraries, which are the largest buyers of books, to buy direct from the manufacturers, the publishers, an artificial state of affairs which has been created to support the book-selling trade, and one not without certain advantages. A Net Book Agreement exists between the Publishers' Association, the Booksellers Association and the Library Association, which is supervised by a joint committee of these three bodies. The

agreement is that any library may obtain a discount of 10 per cent. on the ordinary net book when the publisher's discount exceeds 2d. in the shilling, provided that the library agrees to apply for a license as a "book agent" and names any number of booksellers as its suppliers. These inadequate terms are the best that the combined business acumen of libraries has been able to obtain. The routine of book ordering should be reduced to a simple system. This is influenced by the fact that the authority's Finance Department sometimes imposes standard order books or forms on all its departments, including the libraries. An easily-worked method is that by which the librarian's suggestion slips, when dealt with by the committee, are placed in a special tray, or, better, drawer of a card cabinet, in a compartment marked "Books passed by committee," and entries from them made on an ordinary order sheet, of which a carbon copy should be taken, or which may be copied later. These order sheets (8 inches \times 10 inches) may be ruled thus :

<p>LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARY,</p> <p><i>Messrs.</i>19</p> <p>Please supply the following books as soon as possible accompanied by an invoice setting out the price of every single book, and the discount. Unless otherwise specified, the latest edition of each book is required.</p>					
Author.	Title.	Date.	Publisher.	Price.	Remarks.

FIG. 71.—Book-order Sheet (Section 266).

In the "Remarks" column of the duplicate copy can be entered the date of receipt when a parcel of books is being marked off.

Libraries which use vertical and similar filing systems preserve carbon copies of order lists, and file them under appropriate headings, and dispense with the ruled order sheet given above, merely accompanying the lists with a general official order. Where a duplicated (cyclostyled, mimeographed, etc.) list of suggestions is used for the committee, a copy of this, with the committee's adjustments, can be used as an order list. The bookseller's invoice and the books are checked by the suggestion slips, and discrepancies of price or books not supplied are revealed immediately. The use of books for entering lists, or for other library record purposes, is gradually giving way to the more mobile and economical systems to be obtained by the use of expansible files and card indexes.

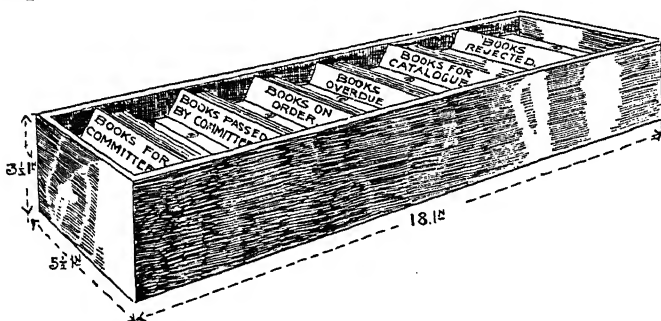


FIG. 72.—Book-Selection and Order Tray (Sections 266, 267).¹

267. When the order has been placed with the bookseller, the slips aforesaid should be transferred to a compartment marked "Books on order," and as the books are supplied they can be withdrawn and placed in a compartment marked "Books for catalogue." This will leave a residue of overdue books, which can be overhauled at intervals, and, when the books have been written for, transferred to a compartment marked "Books over-

¹ This illustration is retained because it shows a satisfactory method of guiding; but this type of tray is inferior to a special drawer in an "administrative" card cabinet. In such a cabinet drawers would be assigned to (1) "SUGGESTIONS," which would include the slips for all books noted by the librarian for consideration; suggestions by experts; by staff; incomplete works, etc.; (2) "COMMITTEE DRAWER," containing books "Submitted to the Committee," and "Passed," and "Rejected" (with reasons), or "Postponed for further inquiries, etc."; (3) "ORDER DRAWER," with guides showing "Ordered," "Overdue," "Not Supplied" (when O.P., Binding, Reprinting, etc., the reasons should be stated and dated); and (4) "ADDITIONS," containing the slips of books added during the year, after the slips have been used in the cataloguing processes. After a year the slips are worked into the Staff Catalogue.

due." A simple form of tray is one divided by means of projecting guides to indicate the contents of each compartment (Fig. 72).

268. The plan of keeping a check on books at every stage can be illustrated from the use of such book-suggestion slips as are described in Section 260, *i.e.*,

	Jones,	Henry.
CNS		Autobiography
		Macmillan, 7/6 n.
Jan. 6	'30	Thomson
Jan. 12	'30	
		T.L.S., 196:99 O

FIG. 73.—Suggestions-order Slip. Size of card is 5×3 inches (Section 268).

This slip (or card) records the progress of the order from the time when it was selected, the initials T.L.S. indicating that *The Times Literary Supplement* reviewed it satisfactorily, to the date of its receipt in the library. When the review was marked by the selector, the name of the author of the book, its title, price and the title of the review were written on the slip. The book was allocated to the libraries indicated by the initials CNS in the left margin, it was ordered on 6th January 1930 from the bookseller named Thomson, and was received from him on 12th January. This slip, which can be modified to meet special conditions, is used in the tray or cabinet already described, will give full and accurate record of the transaction, and after the book has been catalogued can be filed in a special staff catalogue drawer labelled "additions."

269. Many books are bought second-hand. A librarian building the stock of a new library would naturally avail himself of the many excellent second-hand booksellers who trade in London, in several of the great cities and occasionally (but not so frequently as formerly) in even small places. The

method is to prepare numbers of copies of the list of "wants" and to circulate them; but the best method is to pay personal visits with the lists to such booksellers. By this means books can be obtained which might be sold to others in the interval between enquiry and ordering, and indeed some booksellers find it hardly worth while to reply to such enquiries although most of them do so; and editions may be compared. Another source of supply are certain agents who specialize in review copies which they retail at two-thirds of the published price.

1936	580·2
.....	
Balfour.	
.....	
Manual of Botany.	
.....	
<div style="border: 1px solid black; height: 150px; width: 100%;"></div>	

FIG. 74.—Manila Book-card (Section 270).

The vigilant librarian studies these and other markets with care and caution. Copies of books about which little is known are not usually cheap at any price. "Remainders," *i.e.*, surplus copies of books which cannot be sold at the full price and are jobbed off cheaply, need even more careful scrutiny; some excellent books are so treated by their publishers—indeed certain firms are so notorious in this way that the librarian knows he can get most of their books in mint condition at about one-fourth of the published price if he can wait for about six months; but, as a whole, remainders are not worth more than the modest price demanded for them and few libraries would suffer if they were neglected.

270. Every book when received is examined to ascertain that

it is perfect and is in the edition that is required. It must then, according to the system of charging used, be dealt with further, as regards appropriating its equivalent card, indicator book, or ledger page, as may be needful. Assuming that card charging is the adopted plan, a specially made manila book-card must be prepared, having the accession and class number and letter, and its author and title written on its front surface, as in Fig. 74.

This form of book-card is one of the main accessories of the card system described in Sections 431–436. Other processes for the numbering of books for shelving purposes are described in Chapter XVII.

No..

METROPOLITAN BOROUGH OF ISLINGTON.
PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

NORTH BRANCH.

MANOR GARDENS, HOLLOWAY ROAD, N.

HOURS. Lending Library OPEN from 10 a.m. till 9 p.m. on week-days. CLOSED on Sundays and public holidays.

RENEWALS. The issue of a book may be renewed for a further period of 15 days on notice being given either personally or in writing. See Rule 19.

RESERVED BOOKS. Any book may be reserved on payment of one penny to cover expenses. See Rule 20.

FIG. 75.—Book Label with Abstract of Rules (Section 271).

271. The next process is the LABELLING of the books. Reference library books are usually labelled on the inside of their front boards with the library book-plate, which may be an artistic device, or a simple label bearing the town's arms and a few of the chief rules of the department. Some libraries add a label ruled in columns to show dates of issue, but this does not seem particularly useful. Lending library books are labelled with a label pasted down on the inside front board bearing the chief rules for borrowers, and with a date label secured to the front fly-leaf by means of a narrow line of paste on the inner edge. This enables the label to be removed easily when stamped all over with dates of issue. An ordinary form of date label is ruled in columns to take the dates as shown in Fig. 76.

272. It is an important matter, affecting both libraries and individual readers, that books should be issued by their publishers in a condition of readiness for immediate use. Fortunately the inconvenient practice of publishing books with uncut leaves which was common before the War and was the cause of much waste of time and irritation has now given way,

TIME ALLOWED FOR READING.		
<p>This book is issued for 15 days and must be returned on or before the date last stamped below. If kept beyond that date, a fine of one penny per week or part of a week will be incurred.</p>		
<p>No person shall take out of any library any book for use in any house in which there is a person suffering from infectious disease, and no person shall return to any such library any book which has been exposed to infection from any infectious disease, but shall at once give notice to the Medical Officer of Health that it has been exposed to infection and leave the book at the office of the Medical Officer of Health or hand it over to any Sanitary Inspector acting on his behalf, who shall cause the same to be disinfected and then returned to the Library, or destroyed.</p>		

FIG. 76.—Book Label, for Dates (Section 271).

except in the case of special books usually of limited appeal, to the cleaner and much more convenient and economical method of cleanly cut edges.

273. The STAMPING, and where necessary, CUTTING, of the leaves is the next step in the preparation of new books for public use, and in cutting it is necessary to insist that the leaves should be cut close into the backs of the books, and not left uncut to within half or quarter an inch of the back, so that an ugly tear is made whenever the book is fully opened. Flat, thin bone or ivory paper-knives are to be preferred to steel as being less

likely to damage the back folds or the covers. Bad cutting shortens the life of a book considerably.

Various kinds of stamps are used, ink, embossing and perforating. The ink ones, usually applied with rubber dies, are not altogether satisfactory when used with ordinary aniline endorsing inks, as they can be erased. Printers' ink is more satisfactory, but it takes some time to dry, and requires metal stamps to make it work easily. The ink used by the Post Office when applied with a metal stamp has been found effective. But for their expense, embossing stamps are most satisfactory, and of the various kinds of these the perforating stamp formed like a pair of nippers is the easiest to apply. Whatever kind of stamp is used, it should be made in a circular shape, as in whatever position it is applied it never appears to be upside down or uneven, as other shapes too frequently do.

Every library should select certain fixed pages on which the stamps are to be placed, and every title-page, first and last pages of text. All plates should be stamped. It is regrettable to have to assert it but all plates should be marked and in such manner as to make them unmarketable if removed. The losses of valuable plates from expensive books have been considerable and it may be urged that a little of the perfection of art must be lost in the cause of safety. As a rule too much time is wasted in stamping library books, and it will be found quite enough to stamp the places indicated, and use a blind embossing stamp for the boards, but individual taste will prevail here as in other things.

274. In certain books it is desirable to insert special labels for the instruction of the staff and as a gentle warning to readers ; for example :

Notice to Staff.—This
book is to be examined on
its return to the library.

FIG. 77.—Warning Label (Section 274).

This is specially useful in the case of books containing plates of art subjects which are liable to theft or disfigurement. In reference books with large folding maps or plates, the following label, which is attached to each map or plate, has proved to be serviceable :

FOLDING MAP OR PLATE.

Please **unfold carefully** to avoid tearing. In **re-folding**, be sure you return to **original folds**. If a reference book, ask the assistant to do it for you, rather than re-fold wrongly.

FIG. 78.—Map or Plate Label (Section 274).

275. Process Checking.—Many libraries keep a complete check of the processes through which a book passes from its receipt from the bookseller to its issue to the public, in the form of a rubber stamp which is impressed upon the back of the title-page, or at some other convenient place in the book :

Numbered	Out	Stamped
Process Lab.		
Book-plated	Catalogued Slip : Annotation :	Checked
Accessioned	Book-carded	Finally Checked and Issued

FIG. 79.—Process Stamp (Section 275).

The assistant carrying out the process initials the appropriate blank on the impression, and this protects the good assistant from blame for the faults of the occasional careless one. What is more important, the stamp shows anyone coming newly to a batch of books the stage that has been reached in their preparation. Such stamps are readily applied and have justified their use.

276. Accessions Book.—This book is the chief inventory or record of the books contained in the library in every department, and should be ruled to show the history of each book from its accession till its final withdrawal. The modern method is to have this accessions book in loose-leaf form so that pages congested by re-writings arising from withdrawals and replacements of books can be renewed as required. Some of these

columns are rarely used and may, if it is thought fit, be omitted. Place of publication and binding, for example, are rarely required, and then for special books only. (See Section 279.) There are many forms of accession books, but for ordinary

Accession No.	Author.	Brief Title.	Place of Publication.	Date of Publication.	No. of Vols.

FIG. 80.—Stock or Accessions Book.—Left-hand Folio (Section 276).

Class No.	Binding.	Donor or Vendor.	Date of Receipt.	Price.	Special Collection.	Withdrawal Book.	Remarks.

FIG. 81.—Stock or Accessions Book.—Right-hand Folio (Section 276).

libraries the variety shown in the ruling on this page will be found sufficient for every purpose.

277. The accessions book now recommended can be adapted to any system of classification, and when used in conjunction with the annual abstract sheets, ruled as shown in Fig. 82, the exact position of the stock can be easily and correctly ascertained.

278. Every book received into the library must be entered in the accessions book, and a separate book is usually kept for the

copy is required, all the particulars necessary for obtaining one are at the disposal of the librarian in the recognized trade bibliographies.

As in many other branches of library work, the present tendency in accession work is to simplify it. The simplest form of accessions book is that in which a specially ruled counterfoil is attached to the order forms and which only provides columns for accession and class numbers, author, title and number of volumes, publisher and price. After all, this accessions book need only be a record of origin, purchase and addition to stock, and not necessarily an epitome of the catalogue and classification. What an accessions book is wanted for is to answer the questions: When did a given book come; where did it come from; what did it cost; how many books does the library possess; what are they about? There are so many records which give other particulars that it seems a great waste of time to repeat a large number of the particulars given in some accessions books.

280. Some libraries have dispensed altogether with the accessions book and keep only a card accessions index. It is possible to make the slips illustrated in Section 260 and 268 serve every purpose from suggestion to final record. If the slip is made on good card and in duplicate it will pass through the processes safely and will pass into the stock cabinet where one card will be filed under author and one under accessions number. There is the possibility that a card accessions book in the case of fire might not be regarded as a legal list for insurance claims but we do not think the point has been tested. Some libraries do not enter fiction in accession books in any case; modern fiction is so transient and its changes involve so many alterations in such books, that a card system as described is preferred and is adequate. The abstract book (Sections 277-8) should be used with this method.

281. Opinion is divided upon the point, but usually in the enumeration of the stock of a library no distinction is made between a book and a pamphlet; every number represents a complete item, and the number of pages or subject-matter does not enter into the question; and for accession purposes a pamphlet is a book or work, whether it extends to a hundred pages or consists of but four. The Library Association, however, recommends that in presenting public statistics of stocks, as in annual reports, there should be differentiation, and gives the following definitions:

" *Volumes* mean books as they stand on the shelves. *Pieces* mean separate works or parts (each usually having a separate title-page to itself, as with pamphlets, parts of periodicals, and the like); *Papers* mean lesser items, usually with less than five pages, as broadsides, cards, flysheets and prints; *Items* mean volumes, pieces, papers, lantern-slides, and generally all material constituting the library stock, and issued to readers; *Works* mean whole literary productions, whether in several volumes or only one piece. Thus—ten pamphlets bound together, with five broadsides at end, are one volume, ten works or pieces, fifteen items. A dictionary in twenty volumes would count as twenty volumes, pieces, and items, but one work, and in a sense one book. Having regard to these definitions, care should be taken in recording the number of volumes in a library, to reckon ten pamphlets or parts as the equivalent of a single volume."

Thus, if these definitions are used, it becomes necessary to indicate in the stock book the nature of the work; and to differentiate, one or two symbols, such as p.—pamphlet, and pr.—paper, may be used; but if "p." is written in the "No. of vols." columns to distinguish a pamphlet, that will meet all usual statistical purposes.

282.

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 For articles, see Cannons, N, Book-selection, Book-buying and Accession Methods; and Library Literature, p. 1, and p. 263.

DIVISION V

CLASSIFICATION AND SHELF ARRANGEMENT

CHAPTER XV

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

283. There is no more important factor in the success or failure of a library than the classification of the books and other material which form its stock. Some of its uses are obvious to all readers; it brings the material on any subject together on the shelves and in the catalogues, and thus enables both librarian and reader to find books readily. It has perhaps more important uses, because it enables the librarian, and, in open access libraries, the public, to see the strength and weakness of the collection in various subjects; it, therefore, is the only safe and certain means by which a collection may be built up systematically, and may be increased. Moreover, it reveals the obsolete books merely by bringing them into juxtaposition with books which have superseded them. An imperfectly classified, or unclassified, library resembles chaos as nearly as anything can do, and want of classification renders the finest collection of books useless except to those who already know all there is to be known of any subject in which they may be interested, and who can therefore find the books by other means. In short, classification is the primary key to the assembling, finding, selecting and rejecting of books.

284. It does even more than this. A perfectly or logically constructed classification shows not only all the books on a specific subject; it also shows the books which are collateral, or which lead up to and away from the books on the specific subject. It will readily be seen, therefore, that the art of classification is one that must be understood thoroughly by the successful librarian. Several text-books have been written on the subject, and many articles have appeared advocating and criticizing various systems. We can give here only a few leading principles, and afterwards discuss the four or five schemes which have received most general recognition from librarians.

285. A classification system is a schedule or chart of knowledge arranged in some logical order. It may arrange knowledge by the historical, evolutionary or some other and arbitrary principle, the choice of which is governed by the rule that the order must be that which is likely to be most serviceable to the users of the system. Special classifications, such as would be necessary for arranging a collection devoted to anthropology, or botany, or archæology, naturally arrange books by the principle that will most clearly reveal their place in the progress of the subject required ; and such classifications are merely mentioned in passing. General classifications, which are the business of the average librarian, usually proceed in the historical or evolutionary order we have mentioned. Their schedules consist of a number of general headings, called main classes, which are divided by gradual steps in accordance with the principle employed until specific headings are reached. Each of the headings must be exclusive of subjects not falling into it. In order to make this schedule of subjects practicable as a method of book arrangement, it must be equipped with special "form" classes which accommodate general works, or works of so composite a character that they do not fall into any of the subject-classes ; and which also accommodate such aggregates of literature as poetry, drama, essays, fiction, etc., which are arranged by the form in which the matter in them is presented, and not by the matter itself. Further, it must be equipped with a notation, or a short symbol for each of the subjects in the schedule, which may be written on the backs of books and in catalogues instead of the names of the subjects. And finally, it must have an index which forms a ready key to the tables of the schedule, and is a convenient means of checking the placings of books.

286. The theory of classification is a subject for special study, and there are rules of order, division, nomenclature, notation and indexing which it is useful for a library student to master. As the ground has been covered adequately by the text-books which are listed at the end of this, we shall do better to refer the reader to these rather than to enlarge this manual by attempting to traverse it.

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- For articles, see Cannons, O, *Classification*; and *Library Literature*.

CHAPTER XVI

SYSTEMATIC CLASSIFICATION SCHEMES

288. General.—Quite a large number of classification schemes have been devised by Continental, American and British librarians, in which books are systematically arranged according to related topics, and marked with a notation which enables any book or subject to be distinguished by its number, for purposes of shelving, charging and cataloguing. All the best known of such schemes are described in Brown's *Library Classification and Cataloguing*, London, 1912, and Richardson's *Classification*, 1930. It will be sufficient to name the methods of Harris, Perkins and Smith, of America; Edwards and Sonnenschein, of England; Bonazzi, of Italy; and Hartwig, of Germany, which, with the well-known French scheme of Brunet, make up a very interesting collection of international contributions to the classification of books. None of these schemes has been adopted in more than one or two libraries, so that their influence is not sufficiently widespread to make any further description of their details necessary. It will be much more helpful to librarians if the chief systems of classification are mentioned which fulfil every requirement as regards notation and general adaptability to library work, and have been put to the practical test of application in a number of libraries. The systems in question are the Decimal, the *Classification Décimale* of the Institut International de Bibliographie of Brussels, the Expansive, the Library of Congress, and the Subject, the last being English and the others American, except that the Brussels classification is an international expansion of the Decimal. They have all been extensively adopted, and each exists as a separate printed work, with an index, a vital feature of any method of classification. The later systems of Ranganathan and Bliss are mentioned in Section 293.1. Unprinted schemes, or those of merely theoretical interest, have little practical value, and though every librarian has his own ideas of classification, and generally manages to graft them on to the scheme of some other person, and even to nibble away at his original, it is the best and wisest course to adopt a complete,

printed and accessible scheme with as little modification as possible.

289. Decimal Classification.—This, the most popular and widely applied of all library schemes, was invented by Melvil Dewey in 1873-76, and has been under revision constantly since, and is to-day in general a very extensive and detailed scheme. As indicated by its name, the system is divided into groups of ten, and from this results an admirable notation of unlimited expansibility.

Its chief divisions are as follows :

000 GENERAL WORKS.

- 010 Bibliography.
- 020 Library Economy.
- 030 General Cyclopædias.
- 040 General Collections.
- 050 General Periodicals.
- 060 General Societies.
- 070 Newspapers.
- 080 Special Libraries.
- 090 Book Rarities.

100 PHILOSOPHY.

- 110 Metaphysics.
- 120 Metaphysics : Special Topics.
- 130 Mind and Body.
- 140 Philo sophical Systems.
- 150 Mental Faculties, Psychology.
- 160 Logic.
- 170 Ethics.
- 180 Ancient Philosophers.
- 190 Modern Philosophers.

200 RELIGION.

- 210 Natural Theology.
- 220 Bible.
- 230 Doctrinal Theology.
- 240 Devotional and Practical.
- 250 Homiletic, Pastoral, etc.
- 260 Church Institutions.
- 270 Religious History.
- 280 Christian Churches and Sects.
- 290 Non-Christian Religions.

300 SOCIOLOGY.

- 310 Statistics.
- 320 Political Science.
- 330 Political Economy.
- 340 Law.
- 350 Administration.
- 360 Associations.
- 370 Education.
- 380 Commerce, etc.
- 390 Customs, Costumes, Folk lore.

400 PHILOLOGY.

- 410 Comparative.
- 420 English.
- 430 German.
- 440 French.
- 450 Italian.
- 460 Spanish.
- 470 Latin.
- 480 Greek.
- 490 Minor Languages.

500 NATURAL SCIENCE.

- 510 Mathematics.
- 520 Astronomy.
- 530 Physics.
- 540 Chemistry.
- 550 Geology.
- 560 Palæontology.
- 570 Biology.
- 580 Botany.
- 590 Zoology.

600 USEFUL ARTS.	800 LITERATURE.
610 Medicine.	810 American.
620 Engineering.	820 English.
630 Agriculture.	830 German.
640 Domestic Economy.	840 French.
650 Communications.	850 Italian.
660 Chemical Technology.	860 Spanish.
670 Manufactures.	870 Latin.
680 Mechanic Trades.	880 Greek.
690 Building.	890 Minor Languages.
700 FINE ARTS.	900 HISTORY.
710 Landscape Gardening.	910 Geography and Description.
720 Architecture.	920 Biography.
730 Sculpture.	930 Ancient History.
740 Drawing, Decoration.	940 Europe.
750 Painting.	950 Asia.
760 Engraving.	960 Africa.
770 Photography.	970 N. America.
780 Music.	980 S. America.
790 Amusements.	990 Oceanica and Polar Regions.

This scheme is published separately as *Tables and Index of the Decimal Classification and relative Index for arranging and cataloguing Libraries, Clippings, Notes, etc.*, by Melvil Dewey; the thirteenth edition being dated 1932.

290. What is known as the "expanded Dewey" is the *Classification Décimale* which first appeared in 1905 as a classification for a universal subject catalogue projected and since diligently pursued by the Institut International de Bibliographie which has its home in Brussels. It is in its essentials the Decimal Classification minutely developed by experts, with certain manipulations of the notation which do not alter its character—in essentials the simple figures of Brussels are easily recognized by anyone familiar with Dewey—but abandoning the standard three-figure notation, and adding a series of signs of combination and other common subdivisions to show many features of any work. These are the most usual forms in which, for example, the subject Public Finance, which is 336 in the original Dewey, can be shown :

Subject.	Place.	Date.	Language.	Relation.	Relation to detail of same subject.
336	(44)	" 18 "	= 4	:	336-6-8
Alphab. Letter.		General Forms.		Special Form.	Subject Divisions.
A-Z		.002		.05	.12, etc.

thus (to bring several of these numbers into one example), a periodical in French or Italian public finance in the eighteenth century would receive this number :

$$336(45)^{\circ} 17^{\circ} = 4.05,$$

which is almost a symbolized descriptive account of the work. The details of this most important bibliographical scheme cannot be pursued farther here, but the work is available in the volumes entitled *Classification Décimale Universelle, 1927-32* (Brussels : Palais Mondial). A full English translation, incorporating the revisions and expansions recently made, is in process of publication (1936) by the British Society of International Bibliography (the Science Library, South Kensington). An outline of the scheme as a whole, with a full translation of the sections devoted to optics and cognate subjects and of the detailed account of the special symbols, has been published by Professor A. F. C. Pollard, entitled 025.4:335—*The Decimal Classification of the Institut International de Bibliographie, 1926* (Cambridge University Press).

291. Expansive Classification.—This system was devised by Charles Amni Cutter, a well-known American librarian, and author of the code of *Rules for a Dictionary Catalogue*, which has been a text-book for many years. The Expansive Classification has not been adopted to any extent in Britain, but is printed in a series of seven classifications of progressive fullness, and completely indexed, and so becomes one of the methods to be studied.

An outline of the scheme follows :

A	Generalia	Br	Religion, Natural theology
A	General works	Bt	Religions
Ae	General encyclopædias	Bu	Folk-lore
Ap	General periodicals	Ca	Judaism
Ar	Reference works	Cb	Bible
As	General societies	Cc	Christianity
		Cce	Patristics
B-D	Spiritual sciences	Ce	Apologetics, Evidences
B	Philosophy	Cf	Doctrinal theology
Ba-Bf	National philosophies and Systems of philosophy	Ck	Ethical theology
		Cp	Ritual theology and Church polity
Bg	Metaphysics	Cx	Pastoral theology
Bh	Logic	Cz	Sermons
Bi	Psychology	D	Ecclesiastical history
Bm	Moral philosophy	Dk	Particular churches and sects

E-G	Historical sciences	L-Q	Natural sciences
E	Biography and Portraits	L	General works, Metrics
F-Fz	History	<i>Lb-Lq</i>	<i>Number and space</i>
F	Universal history	Lb	Mathematics
F02	Ancient history	<i>Lh-Lr</i>	<i>Matter and force</i>
F03	Modern history	Lh	Physics
F04	Mediæval history	Lo	Chemistry
F11-F99	History of single countries (using local list)	Lr	Astronomy
Fa-Fw	Allied studies, as Chron- ology, Philosophy of history, History of civilization, Antiqui- ties, Numismatics, Chivalry, Heraldry	<i>M-Q</i>	<i>Matter and life</i>
G	Geography, Travels	M	Natural history
G11-G99	Single countries (using local list)	Mg	Geology, incl. Mineralogy, Crystallography, Physi- cal geography, Meteor- ology, Palæontology.
Ga	Ancient geography	My	Biology
Gf	Surveying and Map- making	N	Botany
Gz	Maps		Cryptograms Phanerograms
H-K	Social sciences	O	Zoology
Hb	Statistics		Invertebrates
Hc	Economics	P	Vertebrates
He	Production	Pg	Mammals
Hf	Labour	Pw	Anthropology, Eth- nology Ethnography
Hi	Slavery	Q	Medicine
Hj	Transportation	R-Z	Arts
Hk	Distribution, Commerce	R	General works, Exhibi- tions, Patents
Mm	Money	Rd-Rg	Extractive arts
Hn	Banking	Rd	Mining
Hr	Private Finance	Re	Metallurgy
Ht	Taxation and Public finance	Rf	Agriculture
Hu	Tariff	Rh	Horticulture
Hw	Property, Capital	Ri	Silviculture
Hx	Consumption.	Rj	Animaliculture
I	Demotics, Sociology	Rq	Chemic arts
Ic	Crime	Rt	Electric arts
Ig	Charity	Ry	Domestic arts
Ih	Providence	Rz	Food and Cookery
Ik	Education	S	Constructive arts, Engin- -eering
J	Civics, Government	Sg	Building
Ju	Political science Consti- tutions and Politics	Sj	Sanitary engineering
K	Legislation and Law	Sl	Hydraulic engineering
Kd	Public documents	St	Transportation and Com- munication

T	Fabricative arts, Machinery, Manufacturing and Handicrafts	X-Yf	Communicative arts (by language)
		X	Philology
U	Protective arts, <i>i.e.</i> Military and Naval Arts, Life-preserving, Fire-fighting	X	Inscriptions
		X	Language
		Y	Literature
		Yf	English Fiction
V	Athletic and Recreative arts, Sports and Games	Z	Book arts (making and use of books)
Vs	Gymnastics	Za-Zk	Production
Vt	Theatre	Za	Authorship
Vv	Music	Zb	Rhetoric
W	Fine arts, plastic and graphic	Zd	Writing
		Zh	Printing
Wc	Landscape gardening	Zk	Binding
Wf	Architecture	Zl	Distribution (Publishing and Bookselling)
Wk	Casting, Baking, Firing	Zp	Storage and Use (Libraries)
Wm	Drawing		
Wp	Painting	Zu	Description (Zu Bibliography; Zx Selection of reading; Zy Literary history; Zz National bibliography)
Wq	Engraving		
Wr	Photography		
Ws	Decorative arts, including Costume		

This scheme is published separately as *Expansive Classification: the first six Expansions*, by C. A. Cutter, Boston, 1891, etc., and a seventh expansion of the work is being issued under the supervision of W. P. Cutter, nephew of the author, but no parts have been published for several years.

292. Library of Congress.—This is the elaborate and detailed scheme applied to the great Library of Congress, and is the work of its classification department. Its outline (1909) is based upon that of the Expansive scheme of Cutter which is shown above, but is varied to meet what are thought to be the special needs of the American national library. Each of the classes has been published separately in convenient form with an index.

The main classes and divisions of the Library of Congress Classification are as follows :

A	General Works. Polygraphy	AI	Indexes
		AM	Museums
AC	Collections. Series. Collected Works.	AN	Newspapers
		AP	Periodicals
AE	Encyclopædias	AS	Societies. Academies
AG	General reference works (other than encyclopædias)	AY	Year-books. Almanacs
		AZ	General history of knowledge and learning

B	Philosophy. Religion	DB	Austria-Hungary
B-J	Philosophy	DC	France
B	Collections. History.	DD	Germany
	Systems	DE	Classical antiquity
BC	Logic	DF	Greece
BD	Metaphysics	DG	Italy
	Introductions to Philo-	DH-DJ	Netherlands
	sophy. Treatises		1-399 Belgium and
	Epistemology. Theory		Holland
	of knowledge		901-921 Belgium
	Ontology		901-916 Luxemburg.
	Cosmology. Teleology		Holland
	Philosophy of religion		
BF	Psychology	DK	Russia
BH	Esthetics		100-400 Russia.
BJ	Ethics		General
BL-BY	Religion. Theology		401-438 Poland
BL	Religions. Mythology.		451-470 Finland
	Cults		751-999 Russia in Asia
BM	Theology. Generalities	DL	Scandinavia
BN	Historical (Church his-		1-81 Scandinavia.
	tory)		General
BQ	Exegetical (Bible, etc.)		101-296 Denmark
BS	Systematic (Dogmatics.		301-398 Iceland
	Apologetics)		401-595 Norway
BY	Practical (Pastoral. Hom-		601-996 Sweden
	iletics. Liturgies)	DP	Spain and Portugal
C	History—Auxiliary		1-462 Spain
	sciences		500-902 Portugal
CA	Philosophy of history	DQ	Switzerland
CB	History of civilization	DR	Turkey and the Balkan
	(general and general		States
	special only)	DS	Asia
CC	Antiquities. General	DT	Africa
CD	Archives. Diplomats	DU	Australia and Oceania
CE	Chronology	E-F	America
CJ	Numismatics	E	America (general) and
CN	Epigraphy. Inscriptions		United States (general)
CR	Heraldry	F	United States (local) and
CS	Genealogy		America outside of U.S.
CT	Biography	G	Geography. Anthro-
D	History and To-		pology
	pography (except	G	Geography. Voyages.
	America)		Travel (general)
D	General history	GA	Mathematical and astro-
DA	British history		nomical geography
	20-690 England	GB	Physical geography
	700-749 Wales		
	750-890 Scotland		
	900-995 Ireland		

GC	Oceanology and oceanography		Classes. Aristocracy, third estate, bourgeoisie, peasantry, labouring classes, proletariat, serfs
GD	Biography		Nations. Races
GF	Anthropogeography		Social pathology. Philanthropy. Charities and corrections
GN	Anthropology. Somatology. Ethnology. Ethnography (general). Prehistoric archæology	HY HX	Socialism. Communism. Anarchism
GR	Folk-lore	J	Political science.
GT	Culture and civilization. Manners and customs		Documents
GV	Sports and amusements. Games	JA JC JF	1-9 Official gazettes 10-99 United States 100-999 Other countries General Works Theory of State Constitutional history and administration.
H	Social Sciences. General		General
HA	Statistics	JK JL	United States Other American States
HB	Economics, Theory	JN	Europe
	Economic history	JQ	Asia, Africa, Australia, and Pacific Islands
	National production. Economic situation (by countries).	JS	Local Government
HD	Economic history. Organization and situation of agriculture and industries	JY	Colonies and colonization. Emigration and immigration
	Land. Agriculture	JX	International law
	Corporations	K	Law
	Labour	LA	History of education
	Industries	LB	Theory and practice. Educational psychology. Teaching
HE	Transportation and communication		Special forms, relations, and applications
HF	Commerce, including tariff	LC	Universities and colleges
HG	Finance	LD	Other American
	Money	LE	Europe
	Banking	LF	Asia, Africa, Oceania
	Insurance	LG	University, college, and school magazines, etc.
HJ	Public Finance	LH	College fraternities and their publications
HM	Sociology. General and theoretical	LJ	Text-books (general only; special text books go with their subjects, B-Z)
HN	Social history. Social reform	LT	
	Social groups		
	Family, marriage, women		
	Associations, secret societies, clubs, etc.	M	Music
	Communities: Urban.	ML	Musical literature
	Rural	MT	Theory

N	Fine Arts. General	PL	Languages of Eastern Asia Oceania, Africa
NA	Architecture	PM	Hyperborean languages American languages
NB	Sculpture and related arts		
NC	Graphic arts in general. Drawing and design	PN-PV	Literary History. Literature
ND	Painting	PZ	Fiction
NE	Engraving		
NF	Photography (in art). <i>See</i> TR	Q	Science. General
NK	Art applied to industry. Decoration and ornament	QA	Mathematics 801-999 Analytic mechanics
P	Language and Literature	QB	Astronomy 281-349 Geodesy
	Philology and Linguistics	QC	Physics 81-119 Weights and measures 801-999 Terrestrial magnetism and meteorology
PA	Classical philology 1-199 General 201-891 Greek languages 1001-1151 Mediæval and modern 2001-2891 Latin language	QD	Chemistry 901-999 Crystallography
PB	Modern European languages. General works Celtic language Romance languages Teutonic languages General Gothic Scandinavian	QE	Geology <i>cf.</i> BG, GC 351-499 Mineralogy and petrology 701-999 Palæontology
PE	English	QH	Natural history 201-299 Microscopy 301-999 General biology
PF	Frisian Dutch German	QK	Botany
PG	Slavic languages Lithuanian Lettish	QL	Zoology 801-999 General anatomy and embryology
PH	Finnish Hungarian Albanian Basque	QM	Human anatomy
PS	Oriental languages. General works Hamitic Semitic	QP	Physiology
PK	Indo-Iranian Armenian Caucasian	QR	Bacteriology
		R	Medicine. General
		RA	State medicine. Documents. Public health. Medical climatology. Hospitals Jurisprudence
		RB	Pathology
		RC	Practice of medicine

RD	Surgery	TH	Building construction
RE	Ophthalmology		9111-9600 Fire preven- tion, fire extinction.
RF	Otology. Phrenology. Lar- yngology	TJ-TL	<i>Mechanical Group</i>
RG	Gynecology and obstetrics	TJ	Mechanical engineering
RJ	Pediatrics	TK	Electric engineering and industries.
RK	Dentistry	TL	Motor vehicles. Cycles. Aeronautics
RL	Dermatology	TN-TR	<i>Chemical Group</i>
RM	Therapeutics	TN	Mineral industries
RS	Pharmacy and materia medica	TP	Chemical technology
RT	Nursing	TR	Photography
RY	Botanic, Thomsonian and Eclectic medicine	TS-TX	<i>Composite Group</i>
RZ	Miscellaneous schools and arts	TS	Manufactures
		TT	Trades
		TX	Domestic science
S	Agriculture. Plant and Animal Industry	U	Military Science. General
	General agriculture, soils, fertilizers, farm imple- ments, etc.	UA	Armies. Organization and distribution
SB	General plant culture, in- cluding field crops. Hor- ticulture. Landscape gardening and parks. Pests and diseases.	UB	Administration
		UC	Maintenance and trans- portation
SD	Forestry	UD	Infantry
SF	Animal husbandry. Veter- inary medicine	UE	Cavalry
	Fish culture and fisheries, Angling.	UF	Artillery
		UG	Military engineering
SK	Hunting. Game protection	UH	Minor services
		V	Naval Science. General
T	Technology. General	VA	Navies. Organization and distribution
TA-TH	<i>Building and Engineering Group</i>	VB	Administration
TA	Engineering. General.	VC	Maintenance
	Civil engineering	VD	Seamen
TC	Hydraulic engineering (harbours, rivers, canals)	VE	Marines
TD	Sanitary and municipal engineering	VF	Ordnance
		VG	Minor services
TE	Roads and pavements	VK	Navigation
TF	Railroads	VM	Shipbuilding and marine engineering
TG	Bridges and roofs	Z	Bibliography and Library Science

293. Subject Classification.—This, the most used British scheme, is the work of the author of this MANUAL, James Duff Brown; is a complete, homogeneous, detailed and well-indexed scheme, and is selected for notice as being generally applicable to British libraries of all kinds, although it is not likely to oust the Decimal scheme from its priority of place. It is based on the principle of placing all topics in a logical sequence; of keeping applications of theory as close as possible to the foundation theory; and of providing one place only for each important topic. The complications and intersections of human knowledge prevent anything more than an approximation to this ideal, but it has been found in actual practice to be a classification scheme which works easily and harmoniously.

The following résumé of part of its valuable introduction will give the best view of the principles on which the system is based:

THE ORDER OF THE MAIN CLASSES

“A GENERALIA.—Comprises most of the rules, methods and factors of general application, which qualify or pervade every branch of knowledge, and cannot be logically assigned to any other single main class as peculiar or germane to it.

“B, C, D PHYSICAL SCIENCES.—The material side of science, matter, force, motion and their applications, which are assumed to precede life and mind.

“E, F BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE.—Life and its forms, *i.e.*, general biological theories and facts, plant and animal life, each in an ascending order from low to high forms of organization.

“G, H ETHNOLOGICAL AND MEDICAL SCIENCE.—Human life, its varieties, physical history, disorders and recreations, as a higher development of plant and animal life, completing the biological chain.

“I ECONOMIC BIOLOGY AND DOMESTIC ARTS.—The applications of plant and animal life to human needs. As a matter of practical convenience, rather than logical necessity, composite subjects like Agriculture, Clothing, Foods, etc.—involving questions of origin, use and manufacture—are kept all in one place, close to the main classes from which they are derived, rather than distributed more closely at Botany or Zoology.

“J, K PHILOSOPHY AND RELIGION.—Mental attributes, order and beliefs of human life.

“L SOCIAL AND POLITICAL SCIENCE.—Social order and laws of human life.

" M LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.—Communication and recording in human life. The spoken, written and printed word.

" N LITERARY FORMS.—The products of communication and recording in human life in their more imaginative forms.

" O-X HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, BIOGRAPHY.—The actions, records and descriptions of human life and its dwelling-place. Arranged in this order and at this place because of their intimate connexion. Geography, although logically related to Physiography, and Biography to Ethnology, are, nevertheless, as a matter of practical utility, and because of the literature actually existing, more naturally grouped here than separated.

" The order of the classes may, therefore, be briefly described as expressing :

1. Matter.
2. Life.
3. Mind.
4. Record."¹

THE CATEGORICAL TABLES form an important feature, whereby a separate series of forms, phases and other qualifying factors are provided, which can be applied to every subject, and so relieve the main tables from congestion. They are applicable to the very largest libraries, and give ample means of subdividing any topic, however large it may be. They can also be used with other systems of classification, as they are independent of the main tables and form a series of parallel numbers by which the classification numbers can be themselves classified. For example, a library may have 1000 books on a subject like Architecture in general, to all of which the simple number B300 would be applied. By adding the qualifying numbers from the Categorical Tables, which appear after a point, and are invariably the same when applied to any subject, the following sub-classification would result, which has the effect of assembling all related forms of books together :

B300	Architecture, General
B300·1	— Bibliography
B300·2	— Dictionaries
B300·3	— Text-books, Systematic
B300·4	— — Popular
B300·6	— Societies
B300·7	— Periodicals
B300·10	— History

and so on.

¹ From *Subject Classification*, by James Duff Brown, 1906, pp. 11-13 ; second edition, 1914.

If, in addition to those general works, the library possessed several hundreds of books on Building Construction, B305, these would be subdivided in exactly the same manner, as would also any subdivisions of the same topic, such as Foundations, Walls, Roofs, etc. :

B305-1	Building Construction, Bibliography
B305-3	— — Text-books, Systematic
B305-10	— — History
B329-1	Roofs, Bibliography

These categorical tables are therefore of universal application, and as they contain nearly one thousand qualifying forms, phases, etc., it will be seen that their use will greatly simplify the practical work of classification.

As will be seen by the above examples, the symbols of the Notation are simple combinations of letters and numbers. By treating the numbers decimally, it is possible to intercalate as many new ones as desired between any of the existing numbers.

The Index is extensive, and comprises practically every topic likely to be encountered in ordinary practice.

It is impossible to set forth all the features of this system of classification—its elaborate series of *biographical numbers* for arranging Fiction, Poetry and other alphabetical classes ; its new system of short *date-marks* ; its rules for the *arrangement of special subjects*, authors, etc. ; and its notes on the simplification of the whole subject of book classification. Reference can only be made to the Summary Table of Main Classes for an idea of the size and style of the system.

SUMMARY TABLE OF MAIN CLASSES, WITH ABRIDGED NOTATION

Main Classes

A—Generalia	L—Social and Political Science
B—D—Physical Science	M—Language and Literature
E—F—Biological Science	N—Literary Forms, Fiction, Poetry
G—H—Ethnology, Medicine	O—W—History and Geography
I—Economic Biology, Domestic Arts	X—Biography
J—K—Philosophy and Religion	

A Generalia

- A0 Generalia
- A1 Education
- A3 Logic
- A4 Mathematics
- A5 Geometry
- A6 Graphic and Plastic Arts
- A9 General Science

B, C, D Physical Science

- B0 Physics, Dynamics
- B1 Mechanical engineering
- B2 Civil engineering
- B3 Architecture
- B5 Railways, Vehicles
- B6 Transport, Shipbuilding
- B8 Naval and Military science
- C0 Electricity
- C1 Optics
- C2 Heat
- C3 Acoustics
- C4 Music
- C8 Astronomy
- D0 Physiography
- D1 Hydrography, Hydrostatics
- D2 Meteorology, Pneumatics
- D3 Geology, Petrology
- D4 Crystallography, Mineralogy
- D6 Metallurgy, Mining, Metal trades
- D7 Chemistry
- D9 Chemical technology

E, F Biological Science

- E0 Biology
- E1 Botany
- E2 Cryptogams
- E3 Phanerogams
- F0 Zoology
- F1 Metazoa
- F2 Mollusca
- F3 Insecta
- F4 Pisces (Fishes)
- F5 Reptilia
- F6 Aves (Birds)
- F7 Mammalia

G, H Ethnology and Medicine

- G0 Ethnology
- G2 Human Anatomy and Physiology
- G3 Pathology
- G4 Materia medica
- G5 Therapeutics
- G6 Functions, Organs, Osteology
- G7 Nervous system
- G8 Sensory system
- G9 Respiratory system
- H0 Blood and Circulation
- H1 Digestive system
- H2 Urinary system
- H3 Reproductive system
- H4 Skin and Hair
- H5 Parasitical and Infectious diseases
- H6 Ambulance, Hospitals, Hygiene
- H7 Physical Training and Exercises
- H8 Field sports
- H9 Recreative arts

I Economic Biology, Domestic Arts

- I0 Agriculture, Dairy farming
- I1 Veterinary medicine
- I2 Milling, Gardening, Forestry
- I3 Wood-working
- I4 Textile manufactures
- I5 Clothing trades
- I6 Costume, Jewellery
- I7 Vegetable and Animal products
- I8 Foods and Beverages
- I9 Gastronomy, Domestic economy

J, K Philosophy and Religion

- J0 Metaphysics
- J1 Æsthetics, Psychology
- J2 Ethics
- J3 Philosophy
- J4 Theology, Religion, general
- J5 Mythology, Folk-lore
- J6 Church doctrines
- J7 Fasts and Festivals
- J8 Church Government
- K0 Non-Christian churches
- K1 Bible
- K3 Christology

- | | | | |
|------|--------------------------------------|------|------------------------------------|
| K4 | Early and Eastern Christian churches | O2 | Universal geography |
| K5 | Monachism | O3 | Africa, North |
| K6 | Roman Catholicism | O4 | Egypt |
| K7 | Protestantism. Episcopacy | O5 | East Africa |
| K8 | Nonconformist churches | O6 | Central Africa |
| K9 | Presbyterian and other churches | O7 | South Africa |
| | | O8 | West Africa |
| | | O9 | African Islands |
| L | Social and Political Science | P | Oceania and Asia |
| L0 | Social science | P0 | Australia |
| L1 | Political economy | P1 | Polynesia, Micronesia, etc. |
| L2 | Government | P2 | Malaysia |
| L3 | Central and Local administration | P29 | Asia |
| L4 | Law | P3 | Japan |
| L5 | Trials. Actions | P4 | China |
| L6 | Criminology. Penology | P5 | Farther India. Malay States |
| L7 | Contracts. Property | P6 | India |
| L8 | Commerce and Trade | P88 | Afghanistan |
| L9 | Finance | P9 | Persia |
| M | Language and Literature | Q, R | Europe (South, Latin, etc.) |
| M0 | Language, general | Q0 | Europe, general |
| M1 | Literature, general | Q1 | Turkey in Europe |
| M2 | African Languages and Literature | Q12 | Turkey in Asia |
| M2-3 | Asiatic Languages and Literature | Q2 | Palestine, Arabia |
| M3 | Malayan-Polynesian Literature | Q3 | Greece |
| M4 | European (Latin, etc.) Literature | Q4 | Balkan States |
| M5 | European (Teutonic) | Q5 | Italy |
| M6 | American | R0 | France |
| M7 | Palaeography. Bibliography | R6 | Spain |
| M8 | Printing, Bookbinding | R8 | Portugal |
| M9 | Library economy | | |
| N | Literary Forms | S, T | Europe (North, Teutonic, Slavonic) |
| N0 | Fiction | S0 | Russia in Europe |
| N1 | Poetry | S15 | Poland |
| N2 | Drama | S2 | Finland |
| N3 | Essays and Miscellanea | S25 | Russia in Asia |
| | | S3 | Austria |
| O-W | History and Geography | S34 | Bohemia |
| O0 | Universal history | S4 | Hungary |
| O1 | Archæology | S5 | Switzerland |
| | | S6 | Germany |
| | | T0 | Netherlands |
| | | T1 | Holland |
| | | T2 | Belgium |
| | | T5 | Denmark |
| | | T6 | Norway |
| | | T8 | Sweden |

U, V British Islands

- U0 Ireland
- U2 Wales
- U3 England
- V0 Scotland
- V5 United Kingdom
- V6 British Empire

W America

- W0 America, general
- W02 Canada
- W1 United States
- W5 Mexico
- W6 Central America

- W63 West Indies
- W7 South America
- W72 Brazil
- W76 Peru
- W78 Paraguay
- W8 Argentina
- W83 Chili
- W9 Polar Regions

X Biography

- X0 Collective and Class
- X08 Heraldry
- X2 Portraits
- X3 Individual Biography

293.1. Two recent general schemes have been published. *The Colon Classification*, 1933, is by the librarian of Madras University, S. R. Ranganathan (Madras; London, Edward Goldston), and is based on the classification of any subject by its uses and relations which are indicated by numbers divided by the colon ":" which gives its name to the classification. It is valuable as an example of modern synthetic method and has a useful section on the various Indian vernacular literatures. The second is as yet only in rather full outline, *A System of Bibliographic Classification*, 1935 (N. York, Wilson), which is a practical application of the theories advanced in its author's two important treatises cited in Section 287. Bliss, after an extensive study of the history and theory of classification, has evolved an order which he claims, with some justice, is more accurate and permanent than any yet proposed for the arrangement of libraries. The scheme appears to be learned, logical and practicable and deserves careful study as certainly do the two books upon the findings of which it is based.

CHAPTER XVII

PRACTICAL APPLICATION

294. Numbers.—The class letters and numbers of all books should be written in the inside, preferably on the back or front of the title-page, and should also be carried on to the labels, book-cards and all other records. On the outside the class letters and numbers may be lettered in gilt or written on a suitable tag, which must be firmly pasted on the back. The usual position

A 200	A 200			A 200	A 200	A 200	A 202	A 202	A 202		A 204
		A 200	A 200			A 200					
A 200	A 200	A 200	A 200	A 200	A 200	A 200	A 202	A 202	A 202	A 202	A 204

FIG. 83.—Lettering of Class Numbers (Section 294).

for the tag is at about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches from the foot of the back, as this gives regular and uniform marking, which looks neat. Some librarians prefer a place at the top of the back, as the arranging number thus becomes more prominent, and the tag at the foot is more subject to handling. The diagram shows the two methods. An “electric stylus,” marketed by Gaylord Brothers, and obtainable in England from the Woolston Book Company, Nottingham, enables numbers to be etched in gold or colours, and is cheaper than binders’ stamping and more effective than any other method.

295. In classification systems in which the class numbers are used for charging and all other purposes it is necessary to

provide a series of elaborate auxiliary marks to distinguish book from book in the same subdivision. Thus, in the Decimal scheme, 621·18 is the number for books on boilers. If there are six books on this topic, some distinction must be used in charging to enable the librarian to know which book has been issued. Cutter has devised a table for this purpose, which is known as the "Cutter Author Marks," by which surnames are arranged according to their initials and qualified by a number thus :

Abbott=Ab2.	Gardiner=G16.
Acland=Ac6.	Gerry =G36.
Cook =C77.	Gilman =G42.
Cousin =C83.	Shock =Sh8.
Crabb =C84.	

The six books on boilers would accordingly be distinguished by receiving these author marks, and the numbers might become :

621·18 Ab2	.	.	Abbott on Boilers.
621·18 C83	.	.	Cousin ,,
621·18 G16	.	.	Gardiner ,,
621·18 Sh8	.	.	Shock ,,

In the Subject Classification these books when given the number for boilers, C210, could be further distinguished by the numbers of the biographical tables, thus :

C210	.	.	.	Abbott on Boilers.
3011	.	.	.	
C210	.	.	.	Cousin ,,
3669	.	.	.	
C210	.	.	.	Gardiner ,,
4565	.	.	.	
C210	.	.	.	Shock ,,
7863	.	.	.	

296. Book and Shelf Marking.—It is more economical and better to have the class numbers stamped on the back of the book at once than to rely on tags or labels, which have a tendency to peel off. In some open access libraries using ordinary gilt lettering, a subsidiary marking has been adopted to prevent misplacement and to aid replacement.

These marks are simple round spots of coloured enamel painted on the backs of books, and they effectually prevent shelf being mixed with shelf and bay with bay. There are eight shelves in a bay, and eight distinctive colours are used, so that no colour is repeated in the same bay, and they are varied in

every succeeding bay, so that adjoining shelves will not correspond in the colour of their marking. As a further precaution, the class marks are placed at different heights on the backs of the books in each bay, so that, even if a red-marked book from Bay 1 were placed among the red-marked books on Bay 3, there would still be a distinction. Of course the same level is maintained for each bay, by means of gauges, and the progression of colours is observed. When a book moves forward to another shelf, the mark is painted over with the new colour, and when the book is moved to another bay, the mark is carefully scraped

COLOURS.		
Bay 1.	Bay 2.	Bay 3.
Blue	Yellow	Grey
Red	Mauve	Buff
Green	White	Blue
Yellow	Grey	Red
Mauve	Buff	Green
White	Blue	Yellow
Grey	Red	Mauve
Buff	Green	White

FIG. 84.—Colour Marking of Books (Section 296).

out and altered to suit the new location. As movement is not extensive in ordinary libraries, this alteration is only an occasional duty. The class numbers maintain the topic order on the shelves, and so the most common method of open access shelf marking is complete. It has been argued that the class letters and numbers are all-sufficient to maintain order in a library which allows readers to go to the shelves, but on this point experience varies. At any rate, there is no harm in taking simple precautions of this kind, which certainly possess the great advantage that if a book is misplaced it can be noticed instantly and rectified. Uniform marks require closer scrutiny, the use of colours demands but a casual glance. In closely

classified libraries where there is no public access to the shelves, simple class numbers ought to be sufficient for staff purposes.

297. It is desirable that the arrangement of the shelves should be made as clear as possible to the staff and to readers by means

				●
			●	
MANUAL OF BOTANY	FIELD GEOLOGY	CHEMISTRY	ELECTRICITY	SUN
BALFOUR	GEIKIE	ROSCOE	THOMPSON	PROCTOR
		●		
A 200	A 234	A 254	A 268	A 310
	●			
●				

1st Bay.

2nd Bay.

3rd. Bay

4th Bay.

5th Bay.

FIG. 85.—Bay Marking of Books (Section 296).

of various guides, and these are particularly necessary in open access libraries. The best general guide is a plan of the department showing the disposition of the books in the cases, and indicating the sequence of the classification by means of arrows. The old plan of the Croydon Central Lending Library (Fig. 38) may serve as an example. If the classes are indicated

chromatically : for example, 000 red, 100 blue, 200 yellow, 300 green, etc., the plan will be more easily followed. Such a plan, drawn to a large scale, framed, and hung in a conspicuous



FIG. 86.—Shelf Front with Topic-labels and (arbitrary) Number (Section 297).

position, will give readers a valuable conspectus of the department.

In addition, a series of bold class labels at the top of each class, and plenty of topic labels on the shelves, together with the progressive class numbers boldly printed, and fixed to the end

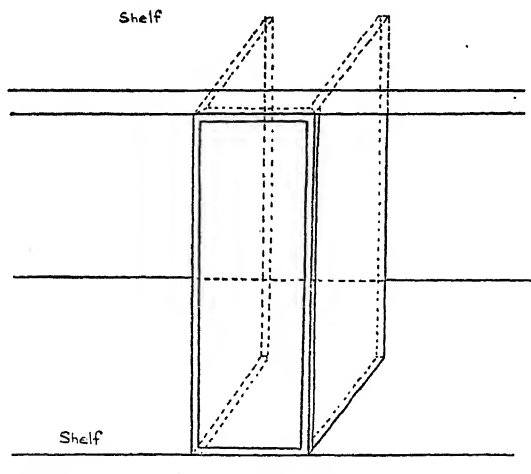


FIG. 87.—Bay Guide showing Construction (Section 297).

of each shelf, will be found a great help to understanding the classification and finding the books. Shelf topic and number labels can be printed by the staff with an ordinary rubber-printing or sign-writing apparatus, and they can be fixed to the shelves by means of the label-holders mentioned in Section 300. For class numbers on the shelf-ends xylonite label-holders will

be found economical and convenient, as they can be cut into inch widths. The above figure (Fig. 86) of a shelf-front with labels will give some idea of the application of these marks. The class number of the first or last topic only need be given. A method of guiding by bays instead of by shelves is described

CHART OF SUBJECTS IN THIS BAY.

PHYSICS**535 LIGHT**

PHYSICS**356 HEAT**

PHYSICS**537 ELECTRICITY****FOR ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING****SEE 621.3**

PHYSICS**537 ELECTRICITY****538 MAGNETISM**

PHYSICS**539 MOLECULAR PHYSICS**

540 CHEMISTRY**541 THEORETICAL**

CHEMISTRY**542 PRACTICAL****EXPERIMENTAL**

FIG. 88.—Bay Guide showing Lettering of Front (Section 297).

in *The Library World* (Nov., 1904) and is one of many experiments which have been made with shelf guiding. The illustrations (Figs. 87, 88) will show much better than words the appearance and possibilities of this system. Another form is illustrated below (Fig. 89) and shows a class label for indicating the chief contents of a main class. The illustration of an open access lending library given on p. 253 (Fig. 90) shows the system of press guides used at the North Islington Library, which in practice has been found very effective.

In this matter of guiding, much ingenuity and some taste have been displayed at times. The facias of shelves can be "written" in gold or in coloured paint to set out subjects, and any number of variants of the methods detailed above are possible to the versatile librarian. Colour, attention-value, and good taste should be aimed at in all guiding.

A GENERALIA.

000 GENERAL	500 GEOMETRY
100 EDUCATION	600 GRAPHIC AND PLASTIC ARTS
300 LOGIC	900 GENERAL SCIENCE
400 MATHEMATICS	

For Special Subjects *see* Index to Subject Classification.

FIG. 89.—Class Guide (Section 297).

298. Shelf Register.—The shelf register is a record of the books as they stand on the shelves, and is the main guide used in stock-taking and otherwise checking the books. Cards are sometimes used for this purpose, each work being entered on a separate card, the whole being arranged in trays in the order of the classification.

Another method is to use shelf-register sheets, which occupy very little space, a single sheet being used for each class, division, or sub-division. The sheet is headed, as shown in the sub-joined ruling, with the classification number, and the books in the section are entered in author-alphabetical order to begin with, afterwards just as books are added (Fig. 91). The narrow columns are reserved for checking the shelves at stock-taking. The date of check is written at the top, and the presence of the book indicated by a tick. Missing books are not ticked, but noted in order that further search may be made in the charging system and other records. When they turn up they are ticked off. The sheets are collated periodically, and any books which continue to be unaccounted for are noted and entered in a special book ruled to show author and title, date missing, and having a column for the record of any subsequent facts, such as its finding, replacement, or other means of recovery.

299. Dummies and Overflow Stock.—Sometimes the library becomes congested at certain places owing to limited

space and rapid growth, and if discarding is not resorted to some of the less popular, or old books, must be removed to a supplementary store. There is scarcely a library which does not

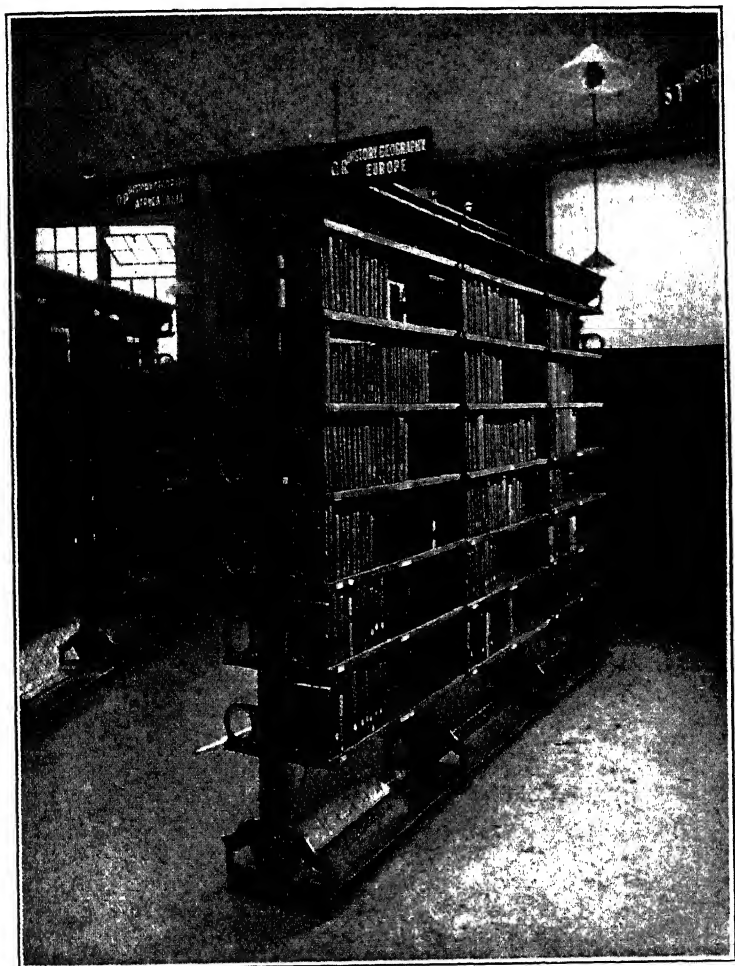


FIG. 90.—Bookcase with Classification Guides and Shelf Labels
(Section 297).

possess a second classification stored apart, where such crowded-out books are kept. On the shelf-register these books can either be indicated by some such means as a red-ink cross, or they can

be removed from the original and entered on supplementary sheets. Dummies, such as those described in Section 300, can also be used to show books located elsewhere, especially in open access libraries, but as they occupy almost as much room as the books themselves some form of list of these books can be mounted on cards and kept beside each bookcase. The question of surplus stock is one which ought to be dealt with on the

Ac- cession No.	Author.	Title.	Vols.	Mar. 6, 1930	Dates of Check.										580-2
5,216	Balfour	Manual of Botany	1	<											
15,621	Henfrey	"	1	<											
5,111	Lindley	Elements of Botany	1	<											

FIG. 91.—Shelf-check Register (Section 298.)

broad lines of the discarding policy discussed in Sections 252-3, but, of course, an actual division of stock caused by overcrowding must be treated as recommended above.

Large and odd-sized books should be shelved in special presses, and their place in the classification can be indicated by means of dummies, as described below.

300. Shelf Accessories.—For the purpose of maintaining order on the shelves and marking particular divisions or classes, various devices have from time to time been introduced.

DUMMIES are used to indicate the temporary absence of books, or to show that particular works, because of their large size, are

located on some other shelf. The simplest form of shelf dummy for classification purposes is a block of wood about 7 inches \times 5 inches \times $\frac{5}{8}$ inch, painted white, or covered with white paper on the edge, and lettered with the title of the book which it represents. The title may be written on each of the seven-inch faces, in case the block gets reversed, and should also bear a plain direction to the location of the book it represents (Fig. 92).

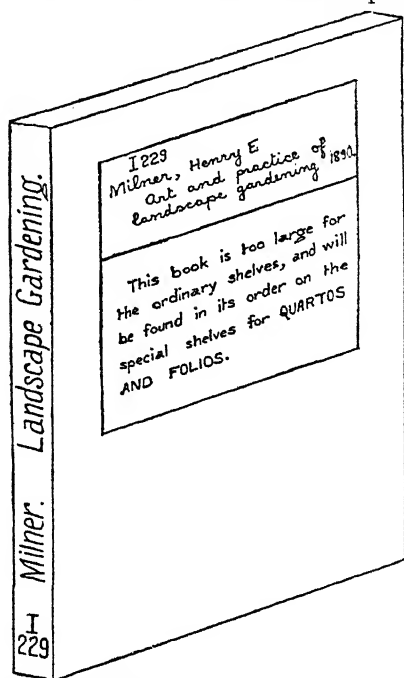


FIG. 92.—Shelf Dummy for Book Shelved out of Order (Section 300).

[A similar dummy, bearing the classification number and the name of the division, serves as a good guide to the classification. The block is inserted at the beginning of each new classification sequence; and in this case, as in that of the dummy that represents books, the dummy is too unlike a book to be taken for anything other than a guide.]

For books temporarily withdrawn a piece of millboard covered white on one side may be used in the form shown on next page (Fig. 93). This should have the author, number and title of the missing book written on the white side. One board of this sort can be used over and over again for different books, by simply

adding the new title and obliterating the old one. This board can also be used instead of the block illustrated on page 255 (Fig. 92) if space is a matter of moment.

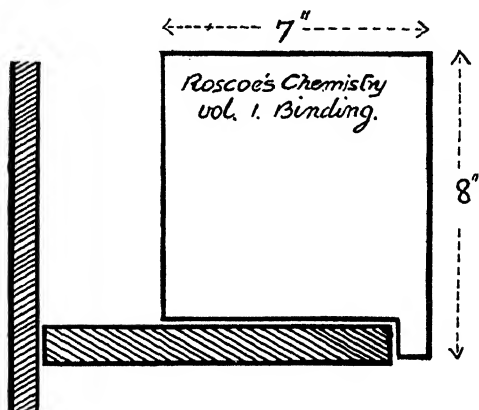


FIG. 93.—Millboard Dummy for Withdrawn Book (Section 100).

The object of the tail in this form of board is to prevent the board from disappearing behind or getting lost among the books. When placed between two books, with the projection overhanging the front of the shelf, it will always stick out so as to be seen readily, while it cannot be pushed deep into the shelf because of the projection.

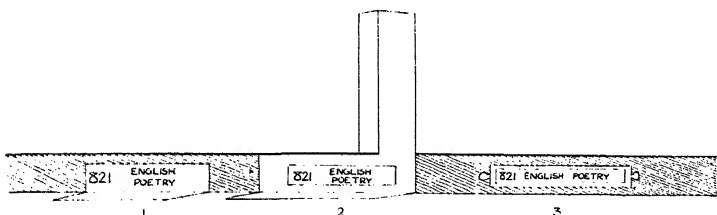


FIG. 94.—Various Label-holders: 1, xylonite holder; 2, variant of Fig. 97; 3, brass slot holder (Section 300).

LABEL-HOLDERS for keeping all kinds of classification or other labels in place upon the fore-edges of shelves, close to the books which they indicate, are made in various forms. An old form was made out of tin or thin japanned iron, with a pair of flanges on the upper and lower edges to take a card-label. This was screwed or tacked on to the edge of the shelf and shifted when necessary. Another form of this holder is made precisely

the same as regards the turned-over flanges to form grooves, but without the screw-holes, and has in addition a long projection to slide under the books on the shelf so as to keep in place. This can be moved easily, but it is very apt to be pulled out when books are removed. A simple, effective shelf label-holder is made from strips of transparent xylonite bent in a rectangular

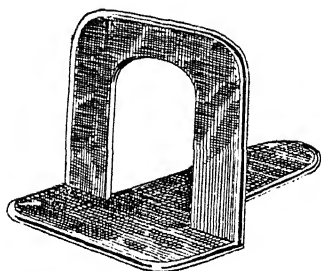


FIG. 95.—Tongued Metal Book-rest (Section 300).

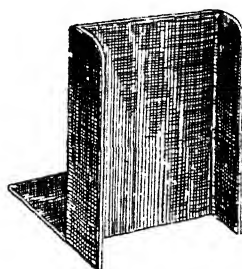


FIG. 96.—Flanged Metal Book-rest (Section 300).

form, and pinned or screwed to the under-side of the shelf as illustrated. Fig. 94 illustrates the various forms mentioned, as well as the combined book-rest and guide, a variant of which is also shown in 97. This can be made to fit into shelves with either square or rounded edges, and keeps the labels clean, as it covers them over. The advantage of this form of label-holder

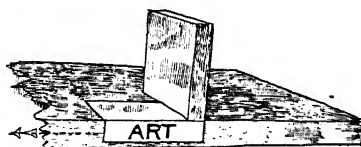
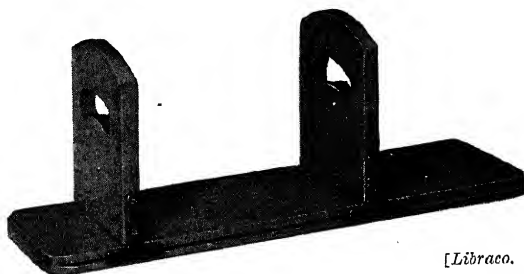


FIG. 97.—Combined Book-rest and Shelf Guide (Section 300).

is that it can be cut with a pair of scissors or a knife to any size if wanted only for simple shelf or class numbers. It is also easily adjusted or changed.,

BOOK-RESTS AND SHELF GUIDES.—Practically every librarian born before 1880 has invented a book-rest at some period of his career, and there is consequently the less need for describing more than one or two typical devices. They are not much used in modern open shelf libraries and possibly give more trouble than service. The best-known form is the ordinary

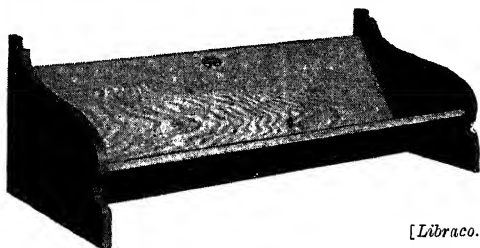
rectangular metal rest, which is made in several styles in japanned iron. Fig. 95 is the commonest form, though it is



[*Libraco.*

FIG. 98.—Lambert's Adjustable Book Carrier
(Section 301).

objectionable, because books are apt to be impaled upon the sharp edge and damaged, and occasionally the rest itself is lost.



[*Libraco.*

FIG. 99.—Book Trough (Section 301).

A better, though slightly more expensive, form is Fig. 96. By reason of the flanged side there is no danger of books being



[*Libraco*

FIG. 100.—Book Trough (Section 301).

damaged, and this side can also be used as a classification guide if wanted to indicate where one class begins and another ends.

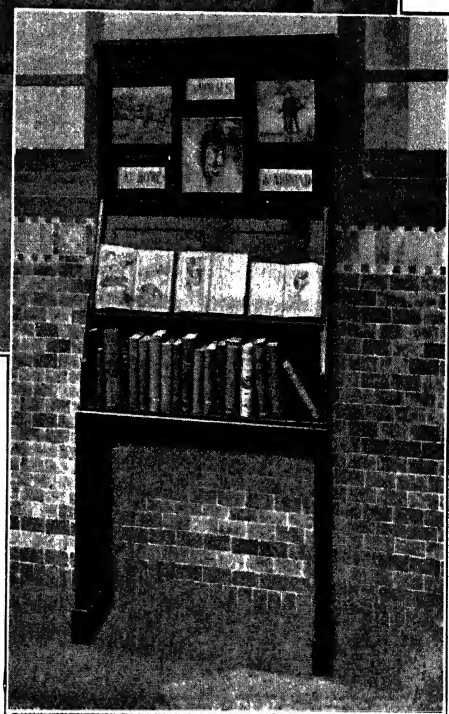
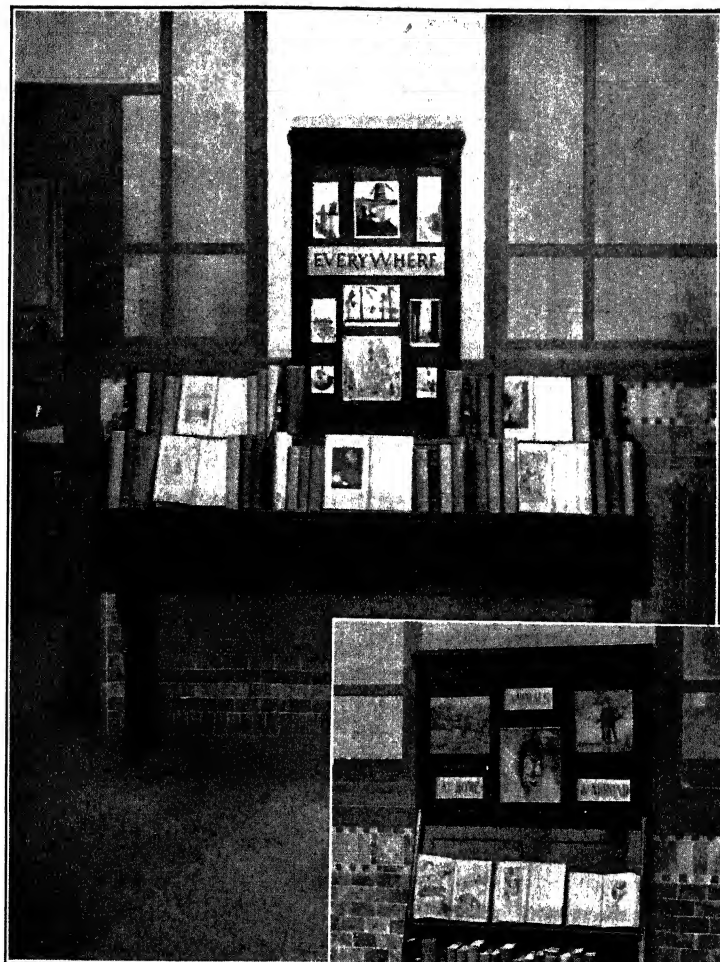


FIG. 101.—Display Stands at
Firth Park Branch Library,
Sheffield (Section 303).

301. Book-Display.—Modern furniture has been developed to enable a larger amount of book-display apart from, or in connexion with, the ordinary classification. In its simplest form book-display consisted in merely removing to a separate



[*Libraeo.*

FIG. 102.—Display Stand, with Screen for Posters, Lists, etc.
(Section 303).

prominent place a number of books which it was desired to bring before readers, and to place them in a separate rack or stand accompanied by a label which increased the attraction. The ordinary book rack or trough, which is to be found holding a few volumes on every private library desk, can be used for

this purpose ; and in some libraries one is sometimes placed on every table in a reading-room. Good examples are shown in Figs. 99 and 100.

In libraries where space is congested the Lambert Book Carrier, Fig. 98, the ends of which slide inward to hold a few

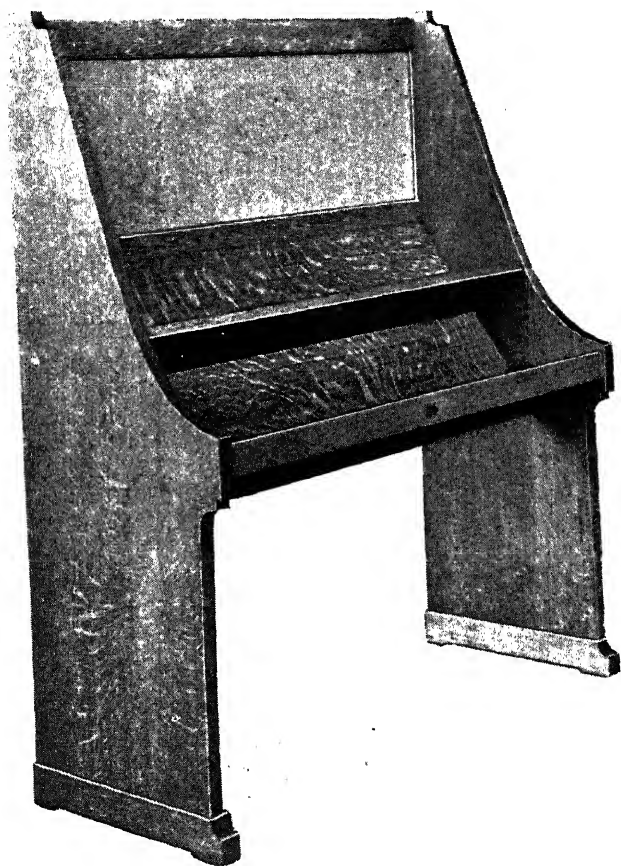


FIG. 103.—Display Stand (Section 303).

[*Libraco.*

books upright can be made so as to hook on to the ends of book-cases ; it is also one of the best table racks and, as its name implies, useful for carrying books.

302. Obviously much more elaborate book-display can be employed. The order of the classification can be varied so that

popular subjects such as fiction, travel, etc., can be distributed in order to avoid the crowding of readers. It is usual in open-access lending libraries to shelve the fiction on the walls around the room, and Biography is usually taken out of the classifica-

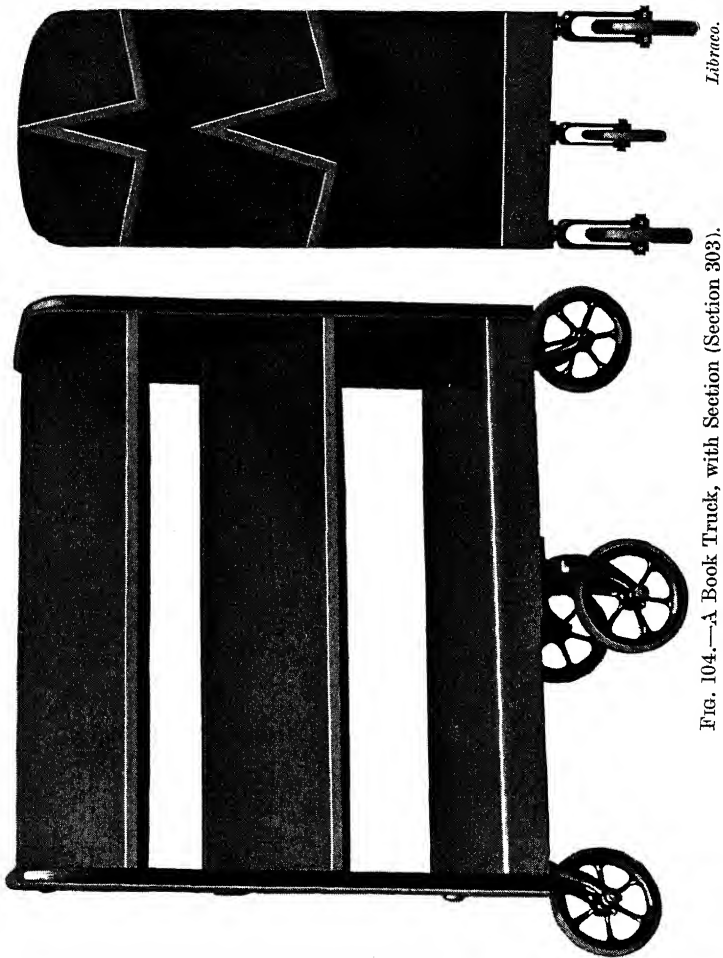


FIG. 104.—A Book Truck, with Section 303).

Libraco.

tion sequence and arranged in a separate alphabetical order. Other variations are common.

303. To enable exhibitions of books on special subjects—for examples, the Germany of Hitler, Abyssinia, Penal Reform, etc.—combined with labels and pictures or diagrams, the display

stands shown in Figs. 101-3 are among many that have been devised. They place great emphasis on the screen on which posters relative to the books and brief reading lists, or pictures, may be displayed above the volumes shown. The purpose of these stands is to advertise, and in some libraries the method of separating books from the classification is carried to great lengths. It is unobjectionable in most cases and is often very useful. It can be abused, as it may turn a well-arranged library into an incoherent assembly of books in which only the librarian, and not always he, knows where all the books are on a subject. It is desirable where readers having no special interests have to be attracted, but it may be an inconvenience to the reader with a purpose. Every librarian will balance the advantages and disadvantages of the method.

The book-truck is useful both for displays and for conveying books from place to place. Fig. 104 shows from two points of view a good practical example.

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DIVISION VI

CATALOGUING, FILING AND INDEXING

CHAPTER XVIII

CATALOGUING METHODS, RULES AND CODES

306. General.—Of the interior work of the municipal, or even more of the university or institutional library, that which occupies most time and thought is cataloguing. A catalogue is properly defined as an explanatory, logically-arranged inventory and key to the books and their contents, and differs from a bibliography in being confined to the books in a given library. For its production adequate knowledge both of cataloguing rules and of general subjects is required, and experience in ordinary reference work is essential. The staff, therefore, to whom the cataloguing is entrusted should be trained for the work and well educated ; that is to say, that part of the staff which deals with the final processes in cataloguing—the choice of headings, treatment of titles, annotation, selection of added entries, and the filing of the finished material. In large libraries cataloguing staffs are chosen with care, and cataloguing rooms are arranged for the work with a regard to the value of natural lighting, of furniture so arranged that the cataloguer has not to rise from his desk every time he wishes to make a reference, and, indeed, with the object of producing the best results at a minimum expenditure of energy. Even in the smallest library, where the librarian does the cataloguing, a preliminary attention to such matters as the construction of the cataloguing table and its accessibility to the inevitable cataloguer's reference books, will save much labour thereafter. It may not be superfluous to add that as cataloguing is exacting work, it is fatiguing work, and no assistant should be kept at it without variation for a longer time than he can remain mentally alert and fresh. Eye-strain and fatigue mean inaccuracy, and at the best inefficient work, and seven hours is a maximum that should not be exceeded.

307. Kinds of Catalogue.—There is no more important decision that a librarian has to make than that of the form which the catalogue is to take. A wrong choice here will produce months of labour to make good the error. The choice will no doubt be influenced by the kind of public for which the catalogue is required. The public may be general in character, and within that somewhat vague definition may be artisan, or commercial, or what not ; or it may be special—with a large number of students. The public a municipal library has to serve usually combines all these elements ; and in choosing the form of catalogue, a librarian may be guided by the desire to serve them all, but to emphasize the educational side of his work. The questions which a catalogue or catalogues may be expected to answer are : what books has the library (*a*) by a given author, (*b*) on a given subject, (*c*) having a given title. Most catalogues may, by the addition of indexes, be made to yield this information with varying degrees of efficiency. The various forms, and examples of them, should be considered carefully before the choice is made. Those usually recognized are the *Author* catalogue, the *Dictionary* catalogue, the *Classified* catalogue, and the *Alphabetical-Classed* catalogue.

The *author* catalogue is valuable in the hands of literary men and of experts, but is of limited use to the reader whose knowledge of authors is small. It is simply an alphabetical arrangement of author entries of books, without any reference in that arrangement to their subjects. The best examples of this form of cataloguing are the *British Museum Catalogue of the Printed Books* and the *Author Catalogue* of the London Library.

The *dictionary* catalogue is the form most popular here and in America, and, unfortunately, is usually the most defective. As its name implies, it resembles in its arrangement the alphabetical order of the dictionary, and embraces in one alphabet entries of authors, subjects, titles, and series. The principle of subject entry is that books are entered under the specific subject, and not usually under broad headings ; thus books on Trees are entered under that word, and not, as in a classified catalogue, under their historical, or logical, place in Botany. The dictionary form is attractive to the general reader, and in its ideal form is an effective instrument ; that is to say, when it analyses the subjects in books, and links all specific and general headings by cross-references. The best examples are the *Brooklyn Library Catalogue* and the *Index Catalogue* of the U.S. Surgeon-General's Library ; and good English examples, which will

repay study, are the catalogues, now thirty years old, of Bishopsgate Institute, London, and of Hampstead Public Libraries, which seems to be modelled on the Bishopsgate catalogue. There have been few recent models as the expense of printing complete dictionary catalogues is almost prohibitive, but the *Catalogue of Works of Non-Fiction, 1925-35*, issued by the Liverpool Public Libraries, is a recent good example (both of brief cataloguing and of modern catalogue printing). Objections to the dictionary catalogue are that it gives no connected view of any subject and of its collateral subjects, that it is rarely cross-referenced adequately, that headings are chosen haphazard and, what is its chief objection, if it is printed it is out-of-date the day after publication—an objection which does not apply so much to the printed classified catalogue, as that lends itself to publication, and to revision, a class at a time. Librarians using this form should base their subject entries upon the *A.L.A. List of Subject Headings* (second edition, 1911), or the *Library of Congress List* (in progress, issued in parts by the Library), or Minnie E. Sears's *List of Subject Headings for Small Libraries* (H. W. Wilson Co., second edition, 1926), as these will secure a choice of recognized headings and save much labour in deciding between alternative headings. The application of the Library of Congress list may be studied in *The Library Association Index to Periodicals* (1915, and in progress), which is, in the main, arranged upon it.

The *classified* catalogue is preferred by many librarians as being more adequate in its analysis of books and in showing their relationships. The best accessible example is probably that of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, the first complete form of which appeared from 1895 to 1902, although there have been supplements and revisions. Good examples in England and Scotland have been issued by The Patent Office, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Bolton, Walthamstow, Dorset County and by Glasgow (bulletins of additions larger than most catalogues issued here), and in 1910 James Duff Brown issued a *Select Catalogue* from Islington Public Libraries, containing entries of the basic books of that system arranged on his own Subject Classification, which has been the forerunner of several select catalogues. In the classified catalogue books are arranged in the order of the classification, in the perfect form in the strict order of it, and under each specific heading the books can be arranged alphabetically or (preferably) in chronological or inverse-chronological order, or in the order which places the best book

first. Such a catalogue shows the whole "family" literature of every subject in a logical progression, and is therefore much more valuable to the student than other forms. It must, however, be equipped with author and subject indexes to enable ordinary readers who have not grasped the scheme of classification to use it; such indexes are usually placed at the end of the catalogue, or class if the catalogue is issued in class lists, and the catalogue is prefaced with an outline of the scheme.

The *alphabetical-classed* catalogue is one in which the books are arranged under specific subjects and the subject headings are arranged in alphabetical order. Excellent examples of the method are the Library Association *Index to Periodicals* and (with briefer entries) the London Library *Subject Index*, and the British Museum *Subject Index*. As the last two examples show, this form is usually provided as an index to be used in conjunction with a separate author catalogue, but complete, individual catalogues have been produced in this form. Its advantages are those accruing to the alphabet, rapid reference and easy recognition; its disadvantages are the inevitable separations of allied topics.

308. Annotation, Etc.—In all forms of catalogue the difficulties which have to be obviated are the lack of clearness of meaning in titles and of information as to the qualifications of authors, the scope, size, *format*, date and other features of books. These particulars can, and should, be given as a rule under the principal entry of each book as part of the main entry; but to amplify such information, notes—technically called annotations—are now frequently provided. The best book on the art of annotation is E. A. Savage's *Manual of Annotation in Library Catalogues*, and the student is referred to that work. Here it will be sufficient to say that catalogue entries should be as full in bibliographical particulars as the means of the library will allow, and that notes, which must be as brief as possible, should elucidate obscure titles, show the qualifications of the author, his method, elementary or otherwise, the preliminary knowledge required for the reading of the book, its place in the literature of the subject, and the presence of bibliographies, glossaries, etc.; and should give, in the case of reprints, the date of first publication, and in that of revised editions, the nature of the revision or editorial additions.

308.1. Selective Cataloguing.—Almost at the outset the librarian must decide to what fullness he will carry the cataloguing process. Every library receives books of apparently

permanent value about which no question of the need to catalogue them fully arises, but it also receives works of temporary or of small value which it would seem do not deserve the expense of full cataloguing; and possibly much modern fiction and many pamphlets also fall into this category. The problem is a real one and its solution depends upon the size, place and character of the library. In this day of many and special bibliographies—even if there are too few as yet—brief cataloguing often serves, although the real librarian naturally prefers adequate bibliographical cataloguing. To catalogue modern fiction, and other books that are obviously for the moment only, more thoroughly than by an entry under author with distinguishing initials, brief title and date, and the briefest entry under subject (where there is one) is unnecessary waste. But here judgment enters and criticism may be raised. The matter must have careful thought and the collection of papers entitled *Selective Cataloguing* edited by van Hoesen and chapter 15 of Sharp's *Cataloguing* (see Section 312) will be of much assistance.

309. Form of Catalogue.—Having chosen the manner in which his catalogue is to be compiled, or, to adapt a term from classification, its inner form, the librarian has an almost equally important decision to make as to the manner of its outer form, or the way in which it may be made accessible to his public. At one time every librarian aimed to produce a printed catalogue as a matter of course and necessity, partly because MS. forms were imperfect, and partly because the universal prevalence of the barrier system made a key of which every reader could have a copy an integral part of the charging. This view does not prevail to anything like the former extent, and the complete printed catalogue in book form is becoming less and less general. In some ways this is unfortunate, because the printed catalogue has the indisputable value of book-form, homogeneity, and convenience both for consultation and for carrying about; besides, it is a valuable bibliographical tool for use in all other libraries. At the same time, the great cost of the printed catalogue, especially when issued complete in any of the alphabetical forms, and the irritating fact that in a growing library it is incomplete the day after it is published, have made it almost impossible for public libraries to publish in this form. Complete printed class-lists are a more satisfactory form, because each class can be published separately and at such intervals as will distribute the cost over several years; and revisions can

be made in similar serial manner, so that classes such as the Useful Arts, in which books most rapidly run out of date or are superseded, can be more frequently revised than others. Most classified catalogues are issued in this manner. But, in spite of the admitted advantages of the complete printed catalogue in book-form, the tendency is to depend upon complete manuscript catalogues at the library, and to advise readers of additions by means of a periodical library bulletin, by duplicated lists, by lists published in the local newspapers, etc. The open access system has destroyed the most immediate necessity for the printed catalogue—the choosing of books from a stock which readers were unable to examine—and few libraries which publish such a catalogue can hope to recoup even a substantial part of the cost from sales. As we have said, one or two libraries have a *selected* printed catalogue, which contains the 10,000–20,000 invariable books in the library—the classics in all branches of literature which readers have a right to expect to find on the shelves—and depend upon MS. catalogues for the stock as a whole.

310. Card Distribution, Etc.—In using the term “manuscript catalogue” we speak somewhat loosely, in that the term usually covers any catalogue not in printed *book* form; hence it covers slip, card, sheaf, placard and various other forms in which individual entries may indeed be printed. The most used of these is the card catalogue, in which each entry of books is made on a separate card, and the cards are arranged on their fore-edges in drawers or trays (but drawers preferably) in the order that would be used in a book-catalogue. The merit of this system is its infinite flexibility; for, as every book has its separate card, cards can be inserted or withdrawn without dislocating the order, and the catalogue can be kept up-to-date always. Several of the great bibliographical and cataloguing institutions have adopted this form, the most important being the Library of Congress at Washington. This admirable library not only prints its own cards, but offers copies for sale to other libraries at a low cost, and nearly six thousand libraries and institutions subscribe for them. In 1935 these cards were available for 1,370,723 titles, and to these additions of from 50,000 to 55,000 have been made annually. As the cards are of standard size (5 inches \times 3 inches = 12.5 \times 7.5 cm.) they can be used in any properly constructed catalogue. Naturally there is an emphasis on American books, but thousands of the cards apply to English books as well. Thus, for an expenditure

of about two cents per card, any library may have the cards for its catalogues, and this is at a far smaller cost in labour and money than any individual printed entry can be obtained by any library. The backbone of the system is the "unit" card; that is to say, one card is printed for a book and on it are indicated all cross-references, etc., and extra copies of the card can, if it is thought necessary, be purchased and placed under the headings indicated. The Library of Congress issues advance proof sheets at a charge of \$30 a year, which may be cut up and mounted on cards as a staff catalogue, or as suggestion slips, and from these may be learned the serial numbers by which cards may be ordered. In the United States several of the great city libraries act as depots for storing whole sets of the cards, which librarians of other libraries may consult instead of proof sheets. This card distribution method has thus been dwelt upon as it has as yet no analogue in the United Kingdom, and it is to be hoped that some judiciously chosen great British libraries may act as depots for Library of Congress and other cards. Their use would save thousands of pounds to British libraries, as well as set free for the special local cataloguing that in every library wants doing as well as for other library purposes the hundreds of cataloguers in hundreds of libraries who are all engaged now in the wasteful task of cataloguing the very same books. Other libraries which have issued printed cards are the Institut International de Bibliographie at Brussels, the Concilium Bibliographicum, Zurich, the John Crerar Library, Chicago, and Pittsburgh Library. About ninety per cent. of the books in the United States are covered by the Library of Congress cards; therefore a certain number of cards have still to be made by the individual libraries; and in English libraries practically all the card catalogues are so made. In some cases the cards are made by mounting entries from the periodical list of additions or bulletin, but usually the cards are written, hand-printed or typed. It is obvious that some system of card distribution from an authoritative centre is badly needed in the United Kingdom as a measure of mere economy.

311. Sheaf Catalogue.—The second form of manuscript catalogue is the *sheaf*, which may be described as a book-application of the principle of the card catalogue. It consists of a sheaf or holder in the shape of a book-cover designed to hold some 600 or 800 leaves which is fitted with locking rods. The leaves are separate individual pieces of paper cut to a standard size and punched with slots and holes to accommodate

the locking rods of the sheaf. The sheaf is arranged on much the same plan as the card catalogue, except that in some cases several books are entered on a page, and when the page becomes congested it is rewritten as a whole. This is meant to save space but is doubtful economy; one sheet one entry is in the long run the more economical method. It will be seen that this is the loose-leaf principle, which has become so prominent in business methodology; and, indeed, the sheaf-catalogue was undoubtedly the forerunner of the loose-leaf ledger. It has most of the advantages of the card catalogue, occupies less space, and has the undeniable advantage of book form. Either card or sheaf is infinitely superior to any other form of MS. catalogue.

A reference only is necessary to other forms of MS. which have been proposed from time to time, as none of them has been adopted by any number of libraries. The very old libraries occasionally use a slip catalogue; the Bodleian and British Museum, for example, paste slips into volumes or guard books resembling large scrap-books in approximate alphabetical order, and other libraries use similar methods. The system is a good one in many respects; it works and the public understands and likes it; but the catalogue runs to so many large volumes that its accommodation would be a serious matter for the ordinary library; and the congestion of entries, with loss of all but approximate alphabetical order at most letters of the alphabet, will be obvious. Adjustments will be explained in the next chapter.

It is not the intention here to recommend any special method or form of cataloguing; individual library systems have individual needs; and no librarian should make so important a decision as the character of his catalogue without an examination of such catalogues as have been named and described. Our next chapter will illustrate the physical forms of catalogue sufficiently, we think, for most practical purposes.

312. Codes and Rules.¹—Whatever form of catalogue is chosen, the main entry is practically the same for them all;

¹ Foreign codes which deserve mention are:

France: Association des Bibliothécaires Français. *Regles et usages . . . pour la rédaction et le classement des catalogues, etc.*, 1913. Paris: Champion.

Italian: Fumagalli, Giuseppe. *Cataloghi di Biblioteche, e Indice Bibliographia: Memoria*. Firenze: G. C. Sansoni, 1887.

German: *Instructionem für die Alphabetischen Katalog der Preussischen Bibliotheken*. Zweite ausg., 1908. Berlin: Behrend, 1909.

Austrian: K. K. Hofbibliothek. *Vorschrift für die Verfassung des Alphabetischen Nominal-Zettelkatalogs der Druckwerke*. Hrsg. von der

that is, the author entry ; and a whole literature of cataloguing rules and codes now exists which must receive careful attention. The following is a selection of the best of it :

Bodleian Library. Rules for the Author Catalogues of Books published in and after 1920. 1923. Oxford.

— Rules for the Catalogue of Printed Books published before 1920. 1922. Oxford.

British Museum. Rules for Compiling Catalogues in the Department of Printed Books. 1927.

Cutter, C. A. Rules for a Printed Dictionary Catalogue. 4th ed., Washington, D.C., 1904. Reprinted by the Library Association. 1935. London.

(The most complete and detailed work on the subject.)

Quinn, J. H. Library Cataloguing, 1913. Truslove & Hanson.

(A good English text-book for beginners, but limited mainly to the dictionary form, which the author prefers.)

Brown, J. D. Library Classification and Cataloguing, 1912. O.p. Grafton.

(More advanced and comprehensive than Quinn, and is illustrated freely. Superseded in part by Sharp, see below.)

Dewey, Melvil. Library School Rules : 1, Card Catalog Rules ; 2, Accession Book Rules ; 3, Shelf List Rules. 5th ed. Boston : Libr. Bureau, 1905.

(With 52 facsimiles of sample cards.)

Fellows, Dorcas. Cataloguing Rules. Ed. 2, 1922. N.Y. : Wilson Co.

Hitchler, Theresa. Cataloguing for Small Libraries. Ed. 3, 1926. Chicago : A.L.A.

Jast, L. S. Classified and Annotated Cataloguing : Suggestions and Rules. See *Library World*, v. 3, 1898-1900. Abridged in *Library World*, v. 7, 1906.

Library of Congress. Printed Catalogue Rules. [On cards supplied free to subscribers to the L. of C.'s catalogue cards.]

Linderfelt, K. A. Eclectic Card Catalog Rules : Authors and Titles. Based on Dziatzko's Instruction, compared with the Rules of the British Museum, Cutter, Dewey, Perkins and other authorities. Boston : C. A. Cutter, 1890.

(An invaluable reference book.)

Mann, Margaret. Introduction to Cataloguing and the Classification of Books. 1930. A.L.A., Chicago.

(A sound class-book, with readings and exercises.)

Direction. Mit zwei beilagen, einen sachregister und 500 beispielen. Wien : Selbstverlag der K. K. Hofbibliothek, 1901.

Spanish : Junta Facultativa de Archivos, Bibliotecas y Museos. Instrucciones para la redacción de los catálogos en las bibliotecas publicas del estado. Madrid : Tip. de la Revista de Archivos, Bibliotecas y Museos, 1902.

A good list of later codes is included in Mann's *Introduction to Cataloguing and Classification*, pp. 149-51.

- New South Wales. Sydney Public Library. Guide to the System of Cataloguing the Reference Library : with rules for cataloguing. By H. C. L. Anderson. 4th ed. 1902. Sydney : Gullick.
- Perkins, F. B. San Francisco Cataloguing for Public Libraries : A Manual based on the System in use in the San Francisco Free Public Library. S. Francisco : C. A. Murdock, 1884.
- Sharp, H. A. Cataloguing : a Text-Book for Use in Libraries. 1935. Grafton. (The most modern and best British book.)
- Van Hoesen, H. B., *Ed.* Selective Cataloguing : Cataloguers' Round Table, American Library Association, July 3, 1924 ; by T. Franklin Currier and others : together with other papers and extracts. 1928. N.Y. : Wilson.

313. Anglo-American Code.—While the study of the above codes and elucidations is a necessary preliminary to the best cataloguing work, they all lead up in general to the Anglo-American cataloguing code, which made its first appearance in 1908.¹ This is a useful and happy example of co-operation between the two principal library societies of the world, and may be said to have laid the foundations of all subsequent cataloguing method. It consists of definitions ; 174 substantive rules, with variations where the two countries could not agree, and where some recognized authority such as the Library of Congress differed from the rule recommended ; and appendices on abbreviations, transliteration, and sample catalogue cards illustrating the rules. A digest and criticism of these rules, which are too many to be copied here, will be found in Brown's *Library Classification and Cataloguing*, and a thorough explanation of them in Sharp's *Cataloguing*, and these will serve to show the skeleton of the entries they provide, and be serviceable to the student who reads them in connexion with the Code itself. The main feature of the Code is fullness of entry, involving various repetitions in places ; for example, the author's name, which is used as the heading, is also repeated in the title.

LECKY, WILLIAM EDWARD HARTPOLE. The American Revolution, 1763–83 ; being the chapters and passages relating to America from the author's *History of England in the Eighteenth Century*, by William Edward Hartpole Lecky. . . . Arranged and edited, with historical and bibliographical notes, by James Albert Woodburn. . . .
Added entry : Woodburn, James Albert.

¹ *Cataloguing Rules : Author and Title Entries*. Compiled by Committees of the American Library Association and the Library Association. English edition, 1908. (Reprinted 1930.) A revision is under consideration, but the time of publication cannot be predicted.

The example will give an idea of the general treatment of a book and of the use of punctuation. The three dots have a "separating" purpose merely. Rules that differ from some in fairly general use are : 23, which prescribes that authors shall be entered in full and in their vernacular form with certain exceptions ; 25, which enters compound names under the first part of the name and refers from the other part,—thus : Burne-Jones, Sir Edward, *not* Jones, Sir Edward Burne-; and in particular 33, which enters a nobleman under his family name and refers from his titles,—thus : THOMSON, WILLIAM, *1st baron Kelvin* ; LUBBOCK, JOHN, *1st Lord Avebury*. Authors who have changed their names are entered under the earliest form, but the later name is added to the entry,—thus : SMITH, HANNAH, *afterwards* Hesba Stretton ; and married women are treated similarly. Pseudonymous authors are entered under their real names when they are known, with references from the assumed names.

It will be clear that, in view of the impossibility of printing the Anglo-American Code in this chapter, it will be futile to give an alternative code in a manual which deals with the general activities of the profession. A brief code did appear in our Third Edition (1919) which was practical and simple, and reference may be made to that, but it is strongly to be suggested that all future catalogues should be accommodated to the A.-A. Code in order that uniform methods of entry may be perfected, catalogues may become more generally understandable, and a formidable obstacle to co-operative cataloguing be removed.

314. Bulletins.—Since about 1894 a number of libraries have issued periodical magazines, or bulletins, in which are printed lists of new books, reading lists on special subjects, notes on the work of the libraries, and other matter likely to be of use and interest to library readers. Sometimes these are not distinctively lists of books, but miscellanies of literary and library activity with occasional mention of books ; and as such are valuable publicity material. The orthodox and more permanently useful bulletin, however, has for its first purpose the provision of a regular supplementary catalogue of all book additions ; a second purpose is to publish notifications of new rules or alterations in the working of the library ; and a third may be to issue information about the work accomplished by the library. The greatest amount of space, therefore, is allotted to the description of new books, and annotations are supplied

liberally to the entries which require them. The magazine has the advantage over ordinary supplementary catalogues that it is issued regularly and frequently; and it has a valuable purpose in supplying printed entries by means of which the card or sheaf catalogue can be kept up-to-date effectively. Copies of the magazine can be printed on thin paper (preferably bank paper) on one side only, and the entries can be cut out and mounted on cards or slips and inserted in the standard catalogue of the library, whatever form it may take. Emphasis may be laid upon the special catalogues or reading lists which can conveniently be published by this means. A special catalogue is usually a classified list of entries on the subject chosen in ordinary catalogue form, of which several good examples appear in the *Coventry Bookshelf* and the *Norwich Readers' Guide*. A reading list has a directive purpose; it is in a much freer form as a rule, selects the best books on the subject and indicates the order in which they may be read most profitably, with qualitative and elucidatory notes. Examples of such lists appear in several American library bulletins and examples readily accessible are those in the *Croydon Reader's Index*, a sample from one of which is subjoined:

DARWIN AND THE EVOLUTION THEORY

PART 1. INTRODUCTORY COURSE.

For those who are unable to read very widely in the theory the following are suggested, in the order given, as sufficient for giving an accurate and fairly complete view of the question.

Salisbury's "Organic Evolution," a simple but interesting intro. to the subject	C	575
Romanes's "Scientific Evidences of Organic Evolution" is also a brief statement of the primary factors of the theory		CST	575
Clodd's "Story of Creation" is a popular but more extensive study of the whole question of evolution	CST	575
Wallace's "Darwinism" should be read as a direct intro. to Darwin's own works. Embraces researches made between 1872 and 1889, and answers objections; it is popular in method	CST	575
Darwin's "Origin of Species" is the epoch-making work in which, in 1859, he first fully expounded his theory of the mutability of species	CST	575
His "Descent of Man," 1871, is an account of further experiments, and more careful in style	CT	575
Huxley's "Man's Place in Nature" may be read as a suppl. to Darwin, as the work of a brilliant independent critic		CST	573
Romanes's "Darwin and after Darwin" carries on the theory to 1890.	3 v.	C	575

Haeckel's "Evolution of Man" contains the view of the theory of the first of German biologists. Principally a study of embryology. 2 v. **C** 575

Weissmann's "The Evolution Theory" is the latest re-statement of the whole subject (1904). Is popular, and contains a study of the author's germ theory. 2 v. **C** 572

If the reader is unable to spare time for reading all the above, Romanes's "Scientific Evidences" and Wallace's "Darwinism" are perhaps the most useful to the beginner.

PART 2. A MORE COMPLETE COURSE.

BIOGRAPHY.

See **Francis Darwin's** "Life and Letters of Charles Darwin." 3 v., 1887 **CS** B

The official life, by his son; it contains an autobiographical c., and is "at once a biography, an autobiography, and the history of a great idea."

And its complement, **Darwin's** "More Letters." 2 v. **CST** 575

A record of his work, in hitherto unpublished letters. V. 1 deals almost entirely with evolution.

See also the popular biographies:

Bettany's "Life of Charles Darwin" in the "Great Writers" ser. **C** B

And **Grant Allen's** "Charles Darwin" in the "English Worthies" ser. **CST** B

Also "MEMORIAL NOTICES: REPRINTED FROM 'NATURE,'" 1882 **CSTR** B

Appreciations and criticisms of his work in geology, botany, zoology, psychology, and other branches of thought, by Huxley, Romanes, Geikie, and Dyer.

WORKS.

1839 **Darwin's** "Journal of Researches into the Natural History and Geology of the Countries Visited during the voyage of H.M.S. 'Beagle' [1832-36]," 1889 **CSTR** 508.3

This v. and the two succeeding ones were the outcome of a government scientific expedition round the world during which D. was naturalist. The results of the voyage were considered "the most important of recent years," and "it is impossible to overrate the influence of the voyage on D.'s career." He left England untried, he returned a practised and brilliant geologist. And above all he came back full of the thoughts of evolution."

The general appearance of the additions catalogue as it appears in these bulletins may be gathered from the two following examples:

Philology.

Wright, Joseph. Primer of the Gothic Language: containing the Gospel of St. Mark, selections from the other Gospels, and the Second Epistle to Timothy: with grammar, notes, and glossary. 1899. (Clarendon Pr.) **R** 439

Author was deputy prof. of comparative philology, Oxford Univ., and ed. of "The English Dialect Dict." (Rq 427). Bibliog. of works on Gothic, 2 pp. 225 bb 6060

Natural Science.

- Ellis, David.** Medicinal Herbs and Poisonous Plants.
Illus. 1918. (Blackie) **CST** 581.6

Author is D.Sc., Ph.D., F.R.S.E. Elementary botanical descriptions of British plants, including herbs imported or collected for the herbalist. Notes concerning cultivation, sources of supply, present and former price, and other commercial details, are given of the more important British drug plants.
615 2349

- Gerhardi, C. H. W.** Electricity Meters: their construction and management: a practical manual for central station engineers, distribution engineers, and students. *Illus.* 1917. (Benn) ... **CR** 621.3

Author is chief of testing dept., Metropolitan Electric Supply Co., London. Alphabetically arranged descriptions, under classified heads, of the principal meters in use to-day. Latter portions of v. is devoted to testing arrangements and apparatus, meter testing, fixing, reading, cleaning and repairing, and book-keeping.
19843

- Mackenzie, Col. J. S. F.** Wild Flowers, and How to Name Them at a Glance without Botany. *Illus.* (Holden) **CST** 580

Deals with some 300 of the larger and more common wild flowers, without technical terms, and uses identification methods described as similar to those employed by the police in identifying people.
33549

- Stanley, W. F.** Notes on the Nebular Theory in Relation to Stellar, Solar, Planetary, Cometary, and Geological Phenomena. 15+259 pp. 31 *Illus.* 8½ ins. × 5½ ins. 1895. (Paul, Trench, Trübner) **CSTR** S70(016)

Author (1829-1909), (F.R.A.S., F.G.S., etc.), scientific instrument maker and educationalist, was a South Norwood resident, a local J.P., and founder of the Stanley Technical Trade Schools, South Norwood.
523.1 *Gifts from Mrs. Cushing* 19840

¹ C=Central, R=Reference, S=South Norwood, and T=Thornton Heath, the Libraries possessing copies.

Useful Arts.

- Jennings, A. S.** Painting by immersion and by compressed air. 1915. *Illus.* [698] 22216

A detailed technical treatise on the methods and appliances for "spraying" paint, lacquer, enamel, varnish, etc., and painting by immersion. By the process of "flowing on" it is stated that a complete coat of enamel can be given to the body of a four-seated touring car in two minutes.

- Jex-Blake, A. J.** Tuberculosis: a general account of the disease, its forms, treatment, and prevention. 1915. [616.995] 22158

- Kean, F. J.** Petrol engine. 1915. *Diagrams.* [621.434] 22217

Each part of the engine is dealt with in a separate chapter. The two-stroke engine receives a chapter to itself. Liquid fuels are very briefly covered in four pages. The appendix deals with engine troubles, their causes and cure.

- Kingsbury, J. E.** Telephone and telephone exchanges: their invention and development. 1915. *Ill.* [621.385] 22207

An attempt has been made in this work so to relate the inventions and developments in the telephone field that the record may constitute in effect a short history of the telephone industry and an expression of its main principles.

- Lange, K. R.** By-products of coal-gas manufacture :
trans. from the German. 1915. *Ill.* [665.7] 22037
Contents: Introduction; Purification of coal gas; Coke; Gas-tar; Gas liquor; Treatment of the gas purifying agents; Treatment of cyanogen sludge; Treatment of crude liquors; Treatment of ammonium thiocyanate, etc.
- McCormick, W. H.** *Electricity. Romance of Reality Series.* 1915. *Ill.* [621.3]... 21858
- Martin, Geoffrey.** Chlorine and Chlorine products.
Manuals of Chemical Technology IV. 1915. *Ill.* [661.3] 22159
 Includes the manufacture of bleaching powder, hypochlorites, chlorates, etc., with sections on bromine, iodine, hydrofluoric acid; with a chapter on "Recent oxidizing agents" by G. W. Clough.
- Martin, Geoffrey, and Barbour, William.** Industrial nitrogen compounds and explosives. *Manuals of Chemical Technology III.* 1915. *Ill.* [662] 22160
 A practical treatise on the manufacture, properties, and industrial uses of nitric acid, nitrates, ammonia, ammonium salts, cyanides, etc., including most recent modern explosives.

The cost of such bulletins varies according to style, variety of types used, etc., and rarely can it be recovered from sales. Some bulletins are wholly or partly supported by advertisements, and when these are included it is better that they should be on separated pages at the beginning and end, and not, as is sometimes done, inserted in irritating manner amongst the library matter.

315. Printing the Catalogue: Preparation of Copy.—The quickest and most economical method of preparing catalogue copy for the printer is to do it as perfectly as possible, according to set rules of typing or handwriting, punctuation, type-marking, and revision. Irritations innumerable pursue the librarian who allows copy to go to the printer which "leaves it" without qualification to the imagination or discretion of that too often unjustly abused person; printers' corrections are an alarming addition to the cost if they have not been anticipated; and what is and what is not a correction has always been a matter upon which author and printer have not seen eye to eye. If the copy is fool-proof and composition-proof the chances of corrections are reduced to the minimum, although it is impossible to remove them entirely. The use of the typewriter is becoming universal, and in some libraries the cataloguer does not use a pen at all but types entries from the books.

Separate entries may be made for each book on slips, of uniform size to permit of rapid arrangement; and in most cases the 5 in. × 3 in. paper slips used for suggestions will serve,

although where annotation is used to any extent the size is rather too small for type- or hand-written entries. On these the entries are made according to the rules in force, and if they are not typed, should be according to a standard hand-writing.

Disjoined hand

A B C D E F G H I J K L M N
O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z
a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p
q r s t u v w x y z
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 &

Take great pains to have all writing uniform in size, slant, spacing & forms of letters.

SPECIMEN ALPHABETS AND FIGURES

Joined hand

A B C D E F G H I J K L M
N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z
a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p
q r s t u v w x y z
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 &

Take great pains to have all writing uniform in size, slant spacing & forms of letters.

[*Libraco.*

FIG. 105.—Standard Library Script and Cursive Handwriting (Section 315).

Experience teaches that the all too prevalent neglect of hand-writing is a cause of irritation, loss of time and expense. Students should be compelled to recognize that there is no relation between genius and their unintelligible hieroglyphics, as they are prone to suppose, and that individuality or *character*

in handwriting in librarians is merely an impertinent nuisance. The models given (Fig. 105) are the best forms of hand-script that have yet been devised, and every beginner in cataloguing should be required to learn their use. If the slip is ruled horizontally, with two vertical lines (a double margin) at the left side of the slip, it will be easier to regularize every entry by commencing the leading word or name at the first vertical line, the title at the second, and leaving a horizontal line blank between the title and the annotation. Every typed distinction should be indicated according to the standard rules for marking printing copy (see Brown's *Library Classification and Cataloguing*, p. 256, "printer's corrections," which apply to the preparation of copy as well as to its correction). Finally, all copy should be checked microscopically by a second person before it is sent to the printer, even if it has been written by the chief librarian himself or by the chief cataloguer. The slips should be arranged in order and numbered, or they may be mounted on sheets of paper in columns of about ten or twenty, in order to prevent loss. Two proofs at least should be required from the printer, the first in slip, or galley, form, the second in page form; it is better to have three proofs, especially if the catalogue has elaborate type distinctions, employs many abbreviations, etc. Moreover, the most minute reading of proofs is necessary. It is remarkable to what an extent errors creep into proofs, and the practice of the printer's reader who went over every page of proof however perfect until he *did* find an error, although it is a counsel of perfection, is suggestive of what may be expected from the reader of catalogue proofs.

316. Printing the Catalogue: Typography and Specifications.—In Section 372 we deal briefly with printing for all general library purposes and much of what is said there applies to the printing of the catalogue or bulletin. A catalogue can be none the worse and may be much the better if the librarian has kept himself abreast of modern typography which is in an adventurous experimental state. Since William Morris showed that beauty could be combined with a certain degree of legibility in books, printers have made strides in type design, which, as Mr. Fred M. Gardner affirms, received in late years remarkable impetus from the design of Gill sans type by Eric Gill. This type with its bold classic simplicity and freedom from tails and spidery strokes has attracted librarians, and is much used in catalogues, although mainly in short lists and only once, in the *Liverpool Catalogue, 1925-35*, in a catalogue

ELLAM

101

EMOTIONS

- Ellam, J. E. Religion of Tibet.....294
(Ed.) Message of Buddhism.....294
Ellerman Lines. Development of British shipping throughout the ages. Illus. 1924.....387
Elles, Sir H., and others. Fighting tanks.....940.927
Elliott, C., and M. Fitzgerald. (Eds.) Home fires without smoke.....614.71
Elliott, L. E. Argentina of to-day.....D82
Ellis, D., and D. Campbell. Science and practice of confectionery.....641.8
Ellis, Havelock. Dance of life.....301
Study of British genius.....151.1
Views and reviews. 2 v.....824

Biography

- Peterson, H. Havelock Ellis: philosopher of love. Ports., illus.....B Eli
Ellis, John W. Fungus flora of the Hundred of Wirral.....589.2
Ellis, M. H. Express to Hindustan.....910.3
Long lead.....D94
Ellis, S. M. Life of Michael Kelly.....B Kel
Solitary horseman.....B Jam
The life of G. P. R. James.....B Jam
Ellis, T. E. (Lord Howard de Walden)
Children of Don.....822
Five pantomimes.....793
Ellis-Fermor, U. M. Christopher Marlowe.....B Mar
Ellis-Morris, E. Children's dances.....793.1
Ellison, Grace

- An Englishwoman in Angora.....D56.3
Life story of Princess Marina.....B Mar
Yugoslavia.....D49.7
Ellison, W. Escapes and adventures.....940.927
Ellsberg, Edward. "On the bottom".....656.6
Ellwood, G. M. Art of pen drawing.....741

Elocution

- Bagley, L. The spoken word. 1925.....808.5
A guide to expression in speech, acting, and recitation.
Bernard, J. Dramatic recitals and how to deliver them. 1934.....808.5
Twenty-four lessons in elocution. 1933.....808.5
Berton, P. Training for speaking. Illus. 1926.....808.5
Gullan, M. Choral speaking (for verse-speaking choirs). 1931.....808.5
and P. Gurrey. Poetry speaking for children.....808.5
Haddock, E. The art of clear speaking. 1923.....808.5
Law, F. Mastery of speech. 1919.....808.5
Loosmore, W. C. The art of talking. 1923.....808.5
Self-expression in speech and conversation.
MacClure, V. The practical elocution book. 1928.....808.5
O'Neill, R. M. The science and art of speech and gesture. Illus. 1927.....808.5
Based on the method of François Delsarte.
Petry, R. I. Elocution for teachers and students. 1927.....808.5
See also Acting; Public speaking; Recitations.
Elsner, E. Romance of the Basque country.....D46.6
Elson, J. C., and B. M. Trilling. Social games and group dances.....790
Elson, Robert. How to be happy on the Riviera.....D44.94
Elstein, N. Israel in the kitchen: a play.....822
Elston, Roy. Off the beaten track in Southern France.....D44

Elston, Roy—continued

- Travels in Normandy.....D44.2
See also Cook's Traveller's handbooks.
Elton, Oliver. C. E. Montague.....B Mon
English muse.....821.09
Survey of English literature, 1730-1780. 2 v.....820.9
Elton of Headington, 1st Baron. "England arise!".....329.85
Towards the new Labour party.....329.85
Elves and the shoemaker, by E. Sidgwick. (In her Fairy-tale plays.).....793
Elwell-Sutton, A. S. The Chinese people.....751
Elwin, Malcolm. Playgoer's handbook to Restoration drama.....822.09
Thackeray.....B Tha
Victorian wallflowers.....820.9
Emancipation of slaves, see Slavery.

Embroidery

- Arthur, A. K. An embroidery book. Illus. 1920.....746.1
Brandon-Jones, A. Simple stitch patterns for embroidery. Illus. (col., &c.) 1926-29.....746.1
Christie, A. Samplers and stitches. Illus. (col., &c.) 1929.....746.1
Drew, J. H. Embroidery and design. Illus. 1929.....746.1
Decorative art applied to embroidery.
"Good Needlework." Gift book. Illus. (col., &c.).....746.1
Second gift book. Illus. (col., &c.).....746.1
How to make table mats, runners, duchess sets, handbags, &c.
Minter, D. C. (Ed.) Modern needlecraft. Illus. (col., &c.) 1932.....646
Contains chapters on decorative stitchery and embroidery.
Mochrie, E. Simple embroidery. Illus.....746.1
Pesel, L. F. Practical canvas embroidery. Illus. (col., &c.) 1929.....746.1
A handbook with diagrams and scale drawings taken from XVIII century samplers, &c.
Stitches from old English embroideries. Illus.....746.1
Stitches from western embroideries. Illus.....746.1
Thomas, M. Dictionary of embroidery stitches. Illus. 1934.....746.1
See also Decorative arts; Needlework.

- Emden, P. H. Behind the throne.....942

Emden

- Franz Joseph. Emden. Maps, ports., illus. 1928.....940.925
Mücke, H. von. The "Aysha." Maps, ports., illus. 1930.....940.925
The escape of the landing squad of the "Emden"; ed., with an account of the career of the "Emden," by J. G. Lockhart.

- Emergence of man, by G. Heard. Illus. 1931.....901

- Emerson, I. Things seen in Sicily.....D45.8

- Emerson, Ralph Waldo. The heart of Emerson's journals; ed. by B. Perry. 1927. B Em

- Emerson, W. R. P. Diagnosis of health.....613

- Emery, G. F. Executors and administrators.....347.6

- Emigration, see Migration.

- Emil and the detectives: a play, by E. Kaestner.....822

- Emmet, Robert, by R. W. Postgate. Ports. 1931.....B Emm

- Emmett, W. H. Marxian economic handbook and glossary.....331

- Emotions
MacCurdy, J. T. The psychology of emotion: morbid and normal. 1925.....157

FIG. 106.—From Liverpool's *Non-Fiction Catalogue*, 1935 (about 6/8ths original size). Gill Sans type is used throughout; 8 pt. extra light and 8 pt. bold for main entries, with 6 pt. for annotations. The sharp impression makes the 6 pt. clear (even when reduced here) and the double columns obviate the usual straggly effect (Section 316).

History, Biography and Memoirs

15

GALE, NORMAN. A Famous Old Book Shop (Over, Rugby). 9" x 6". 17 pp. *Rugby: Over.* 1914.

GARNETT, DAVID. Never be a Bookseller. 7 $\frac{3}{4}$ " x 5 $\frac{3}{8}$ ". 15 pp. *New York: Knopf.* 1929.

GENT, THOMAS. The Life of Mr. Thomas Gent, Printer, of York; written by Himself. 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ ". 208 pp. *London: Thomas Thorpe.* 1832.

Gentleman's Magazine, The. Vol. XXIV, for the Year 1754. 7 $\frac{7}{8}$ " x 5 $\frac{1}{8}$ ". 632 pp. Contains (p. 35) an Account of the Life of the late Mr. Edward Cave, by Samuel Johnson. *London: Cave.* 1754.

GOMME, GEORGE LAURENCE (Editor). The Gentleman's Magazine Library: Being a classified collection of the chief contents of the "Gentleman's Magazine" from 1731 to 1868. 8 $\frac{7}{8}$ " x 5 $\frac{5}{8}$ ". 359 pp. Containing Literary Curiosities and Notes, edited by A. B. G. *London: Elliot Stock.* 1888.

GOSCHEN, VISCOUNT. The Life and Times of Georg Joachim Goschen, Publisher and Printer of Leipzig, 1752-1828. By his Grandson. 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ ". Vol. I 487 pp. Vol. II 490 pp. Illustrated. *London: Murray.* 1903.

GRAVES, CHARLES L. Life and Letters of Alexander Macmillan. 8 $\frac{7}{8}$ " x 5 $\frac{3}{4}$ ". 426 pp. *London: Macmillan.* 1910.

GRAY, GEORGE J. Cambridge Bookselling and the Oldest Bookshop in the United Kingdom. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 4 $\frac{1}{4}$ ". 35 pp. *Cambridge: Bowes & Bowes.* 1925.

William Pickering. A Paper read before the Bibliographical Society, March 15th, 1897. 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 6 $\frac{1}{8}$ ". 50 pp. Illustrated. *London: Bibliographical Society.* 1898.

Green. Charles Edward Green. Obituary Notices. 8" x 6". 41 pp. *Privately Printed.* 1920.

Griffin. The Centenary Volume of Charles Griffin and Company, Ltd., Publishers, 1820-1920. 8 $\frac{3}{8}$ " x 6 $\frac{1}{8}$ ". 310 pp. Illustrated. *London: Griffin.* 1920.

GUY, THOMAS. A Copy of the Last Will and Testament of Thomas Guy, Esq. 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 5 $\frac{1}{8}$ ". 98 pp. *London.* 1815.

HARPER, J. HENRY. The House of Harper. A Century of Publishing in Franklin Square. 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 5 $\frac{3}{4}$ ". 702 pp. Illustrated. *London: Harper.* 1912.

FIG. 107.—The National Book Council's *Books About Books* (or catalogue of its own library) 6/7ths original size), in which 10 pt. Gill Sans, with leading between each entry produces an effective but rather generously-spaced page (Section 316).

PRODUCTION. PRICES

- COLE (G. D. H.) Self-government in industry. 1928. [331.88]
 HENDERSON (Hubert D.) Supply and demand. 1922.
 (Cambridge Economic Handbooks) 338
 SMITH (D. H.) Economics of Empire trade. 1930. *bib.* 338

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS

- BARKER (Arthur) The British corn trade, from the
 earliest times to the present day. *ill.* (*Common*
 Commodities and Industries) 338.1
 FORDHAM (Montague) Rebuilding of rural England.
 1924. *port.* 338.1
 MACARA (Sir Chas. W.) Modern industrial tendencies.
 1926. 338.1
 Concerned mainly with the Cotton industry. The author
 was President of the English and International Cotton
 Federations for many years.
 SACHS (John C.) Furs and the fur trade. *ill.* (*Common*
 Commodities and Industries) 338.1
 WOLFF (Henry W.) Rural reconstruction. 1921. 338.1
 WOOD (Walter) The Meat industry. *ill.* (*Common*
 Commodities and Industries) 338.1

RURAL INDUSTRIES

- FITZRANDOLPH (Helen E.), HAY (M. Doriel) and JONES
 (Anna M.) The Rural industries of England and
 Wales: a survey made on behalf of the Agricul-
 tural Economics Research Institute, Oxford.
 4v. 1926-7. *ill.* 338.15
 Contents: VOLUME I—Timber and underwood Industries
 and some village workshops. VOLUME II—Osier-growing
 and basketry, and some rural factories. VOLUME III—
 Decorative arts and rural potteries. VOLUME IV—Wales.
 The last of the authors mentioned above is responsible for
 the fourth volume only.
 GREEN (J. L.) The Rural industries of England. 338.15

MINING PRODUCTS

- ASHTON (Thomas S.) and SYKES (Joseph) The Coal
 industry of the eighteenth century. 1929. *bib.* 338.2
 REPORT of the Royal Commission on the Coal Industry
 (1925), with Minutes of evidence, and appendices.
 1926. [326.3628]

PRICES

- ANGELL (James W.) Theory of international prices :
 history, criticism and restatement. 1926. *statistics*,
 bib. 338.5
 HOBSON (J. A.) Gold, prices, and wages, with an ex-
 amination of the quantity theory. 1913. *diagrams.* 338.5
 LAYTON (Sir Walter T.) and CROWTHER (Geoffrey) An
 Introduction to the study of prices. 1935. *charts*,
 appendices. 338.5

FIG. 108.—From the Dorset County Library's *Non-Fiction Catalogue*, 1936 (about 6/7ths original size) combining 10 pt. Old Style type entries with Gill Sans headings. Interesting, but perhaps not so immediately effective as the Liverpool example, and the single column with marginal class numbers is to some eyes less economical and pleasing (Section 316).

AERO ENGINES and AVIATION

SCHOFIELD, H. M.	<i>Pictorial flying course</i>	-	-	-	-	629.13
AND W. E. JOHNS						
SPRIGG, T. S.	- <i>Air licences.</i>	1934	-	-	-	629.13
STEWART, O.	- <i>Flying as a career.</i>	1934	-	-	-	629.13
SUMNER, P. H.	- <i>Aircraft progress and development.</i>					
		1935	-	-	-	629.13

¶ MOTOR CARS, MOTOR-CYCLES and CYCLES

(See also "Books for Craftsmen")

DONKIN, C. T. B.	<i>Elements of motor vehicle design.</i>	1935				629.26
EARNEY, J.	- <i>Modern motor repair.</i>	4 vols.	-	-	-	629.24
JUDGE, A. W.,	<i>Modern motor cars and commercial</i>					
Editor	<i>vehicles.</i>	4 vols.	-	-	-	629.2
STEWART, O.	- <i>Traffic driving technique.</i>	1934	-	-	-	629.2
STUART, J. R.,	<i>Garage worker's handbooks.</i>	7 vols.				
Editor		1933-34	-	-	-	629.24

¶ USEFUL ARTS—METAL WORK and FURNACES

(See also "Books for Craftsmen")

BARDTKE, P.	- <i>Technique of modern welding.</i>	1933	-			671
CHARNOCK, G. F.	<i>Mechanical technology.</i>	1934	-	-	-	621.7
LAING, J. AND	<i>Manual of foundry practice.</i>	1934	-			621.74
R. T. ROLFE						
PARTINGTON, E.	- <i>Chemical plumbing, lead-burning, etc.</i>		-			671
ROBIETTE, A. G.	- <i>Electric melting practice.</i>	1935	-	-	-	669
SMITH, E. A.	- <i>Working in precious metals</i>		-	-	-	669.2
STOCKTON, R. C.	- <i>Principles of electric welding : metallic</i>					
	<i>arc process.</i>	1933	-	-	-	671

¶ USEFUL ARTS—BUILDING and CARPENTRY

(See also "Books for Craftsmen")

ALCHIN, G.	-	- <i>Practical building law.</i>	1933	-	-	692
ASHWORTH, H. I.	-	<i>Architectural practice and administra-</i>				
		<i>tion.</i>	1933	-	-	692.5
BARNARD, J.	-	<i>Everyman his own mechanic</i>		-	-	690

FIG. 109.—From Dagenham's *Four Thousand Recommended Books* (6/7ths original size), in which Ronaldson's caps and italics are used throughout to make a legible, well-arranged page (Section 316).

exceeding 300 pages. The samples of bulletins already given in Sections 314 are of ordinary printing, and although they have no special distinction are satisfactory to older readers. The modern librarian, however, wants modern work in which types are chosen to produce attention values by harmony in blending; and where it is at all possible consultations between librarian and expert printer should be held before the printing contract is made because when once a form is chosen it must, as a rule, be followed consistently. This is sometimes not possible with municipal libraries where all the printing of the municipality is let to one contractor, and that of course the cheapest, who may not have the desired stocks of type. The examples which have been chosen for inclusion here by Mr. Gardner illustrate some attractive modern catalogues and book-lists (Figs. 106-09).

Hints on printing specifications for catalogues can be gained from Philip's *The Production of the Printed Catalogue* and from Quinn's *Library Cataloguing*, but the specifications there given must be adjusted to the special kind of catalogue proposed. An excellent practical method of obtaining estimates of cost is to have specimen pages printed of the body of the catalogue and the indexes, exactly of the required model, spaced out with the number of lines per page. If the manuscript copy is not ready, estimates can be obtained from the printers per page, according to the specimen pages, and this is a fair way of tendering. If the copy is ready, estimates should be obtained for the whole job, including covers, in the style of the specimen pages. A printer can soon tell how much print a manuscript will run to, especially if the copy has been prepared in a uniform manner, with ten or twelve slips mounted on the folio. A clear understanding as to payment for corrections and additions to proof should be reached before the tender is accepted.

317. Co-operative Cataloguing.—Efforts have been made from time to time to obviate the duplicating of cataloguing work that occurs all over the country, and in every country, and brief reference should be made to these. The principal is the Library of Congress card-distribution system, to which detailed reference has been made (Section 310). In Great Britain various attempts have been made, but chiefly in the form of annotated and classified lists of new books, which it was expected that libraries would transfer to their own catalogues. Such lists were issued in *The Library World* in 1901, but were discontinued for lack of support. Later the Library Association

issued such lists in *The Library Association Record*, and it is hoped that they will be revived in a separate form; the Association of Assistant Librarians has gone in this direction in its monthly *Recommended Books*, which, however, is limited to about ten of the best books which are appraised and described with verve. *The Librarian and Book Selector* publishes monthly annotated lists which are classified by the Decimal classification and *The Library Review* select quarterly ones. In America, *The A.L.A. Book-List*, *The Wisconsin Library Bulletin*, and *The Ontario Library Review* all provide similar lists. Any of the entries in all of these is suitable for cutting out and mounting on cards or slips for insertion in existing catalogues. A few publishers issue their lists in this form, some even using actual catalogue cards.

Other kinds of catalogue co-operation are those in which more than one library have joined in the issue of a catalogue to cover the stock of all in certain subjects. Examples are the *Classified Catalogue on Architecture, etc., in the Principal Libraries of Manchester and Salford*, 1909, which was edited by Henry Guppy and Guthrie Vine for the Joint Architectural Committee of Manchester; and the *Newcastle Classical Catalogue*, 1912, which contains certain periodicals and books in the Armstrong College Library, as well as those in the Public Libraries. The university libraries have co-operated in a union-catalogue of periodicals. A series of class-lists on important subjects such as Internal Combustion Engines and Aeronautics, both 1918, were issued by the Committee on Joint-Technical Catalogues, Glasgow, which bring together titles from the libraries of eighteen institutions in that city, indicating the location of the various books by abbreviations added to the entries, as :

Cassier's Engineering Monthly. E. Kp. L. Ml. P. Pp. S. St. U.

The recent co-operation of the Regional Library Bureaux to produce union catalogues of the non-fiction books in large library areas, including a union card catalogue of all the reference departments of London public libraries, all of which are housed in the National Central Library, is dealt with later in detail.

Many schemes for national central co-operative cataloguing have been drawn up, and lie buried in the pages of library periodicals, until some future time when the benefits of such work will be realized and recognized in this country.

CHAPTER XIX

MECHANICAL METHODS OF DISPLAYING CATALOGUES

318. We have dealt already with forms of catalogue to some extent, but the five chief methods of displaying manuscript catalogues merit a more detailed consideration and illustration. It is needless to attempt to describe every device which has been introduced for the purpose of displaying catalogues and providing for additions and expansion, and we shall limit our selection to those which are best known, most effective or most used. The five chief methods are the Page, Card, Sheaf, Placard and Panoramic, a nomenclature suggested in an article which appeared in 1893 in *The Library*, pp. 45-66.

319. Page Catalogues.—The most elementary form of the page catalogue is the ordinary manuscript book, with stepped thumb-index or simple alphabetical division of the leaves, so many being allowed for each letter of the alphabet. This is an unsuitable variety for a public library, and should not be used for cataloguing purposes.

The British Museum public catalogue consists of large guard books, in which printed or manuscript slips of book entries are mounted on the tough cartridge paper leaves, so as to leave space for additions. When a page becomes congested, the slips can be lifted by means of a paper-knife, as they are secured only at the ends, another leaf can be inserted on the adjoining guard, and the old and additional slips can be redistributed over the whole of the newly created space. This catalogue represents but one alphabet, or copy of the catalogue, in some hundreds of volumes, and each volume only holds a small portion of the alphabet, as from Bal to Bec. One copy of the catalogue thus serves many readers at one time. By distributing the entries over a number of volumes, congestion is less likely to occur than in catalogues complete in themselves in one or two volumes.

A variation of this system of guard book is to be seen in some public libraries where the whole of the catalogue is mounted in one volume. A number of copies of this style of page catalogue

must be provided to meet public needs, and it is, on the whole, a less serviceable and much more expensive form than the catalogue on similar lines spread over a number of volumes. A good example of this kind of page catalogue is to be seen in the Mitchell Library, Glasgow, where it exists in the form of huge guard books displayed on special stands.

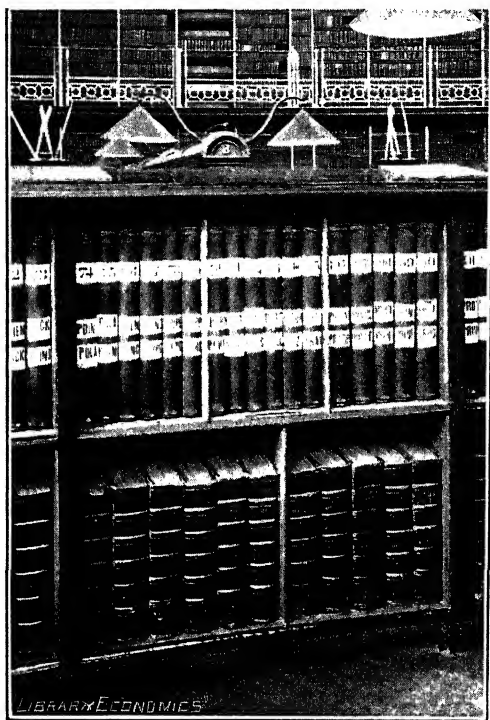


FIG. 110.—Catalogue Shelves at the British Museum (Section 319).

320. To overcome the difficulty of inserting additional leaves at pleasure in page catalogues, various kinds of adjustable albums, with movable leaves, have been introduced. At the Bibliothèque Nationale, in Paris, and elsewhere a catalogue is used consisting of thick, hinged leaves, punched at the back and laced into the boards, or secured by means of a screw fastening.

321. Another variety of this French binder designed to secure adjustability of leaves is that shown in the illustration (Fig. 111), wherein the leaves are clamped by the pressure of

two wooden slats, which are drawn together by means of two or more endless screws turned by a key. For this kind of binder it is necessary to notch the leaves to correspond with the screws. These are merely mentioned as representing the beginnings, which business owes to the library, of the many loose-leaf holders, binders and sheaf forms with which every business man is familiar to-day, and for librarians have reached the greatest utility in the form illustrated in Section 336-37. Obviously, the most recent methods of loose-leaf ledgers have great possibilities for catalogues, and are probably to be preferred to any book manuscript type other than the sheaf.

The whole of the devices just described depend for their utility upon the fact that leaves can be inserted, to a more or less limited extent, at any point. The British Museum type does not provide for unlimited additions, nor for any subsequent division of volumes,

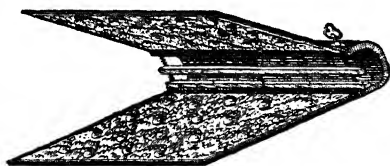


FIG. 111.—Adjustable Screw Binder
(Section 321).

without much trouble and rebinding. The French and other adjustable leaved binders do allow for unlimited insertions, subject to the condition that the matter mounted on the pages must be re-distributed. In an adjustable book new leaves can be inserted at any place till the volume is full, and then the contents may be divided and two books used, this sub-division and spreading being continued as the entries increase in number.

322. A form of page catalogue combining the powers of inserting new leaves at any point, and moving single entries about without having to paste them down or lift them up, is called the Rudolph Indexer. It consists in its book form of thick cardboard leaves, to which metal flanges are secured, down each margin. Each leaf is provided with a double-hinged fastening, which enables it to be hooked on to any adjoining leaf, so as to form a volume of any desired thickness, to which a pair of covers can be attached. The catalogue entries are written or printed on narrow cards, and these are slipped under the flanges, which secure them by either end. Fig. 112 shows at a glance the appearance of this form of page catalogue, of which, again, the modern filing and indexing firms have produced many variations.

323. There are certain advantages claimed for page catalogues which may be enumerated here. The chief is that a large group of entries can be scanned with one sweep of the eye, thereby facilitating the rapid finding of any particular entry. Another is that, being in book form, it is more easily manipulated than other forms of catalogue. Its comparative cheapness is sometimes put forward as an advantage over other forms, particularly cards, but on this point it is not wise to assume cheapness where so much time and labour are necessarily involved. As regards the claim to rapidity in turning up entries because a whole page is exposed at a time, some entertain doubts as to its soundness. General experience of such

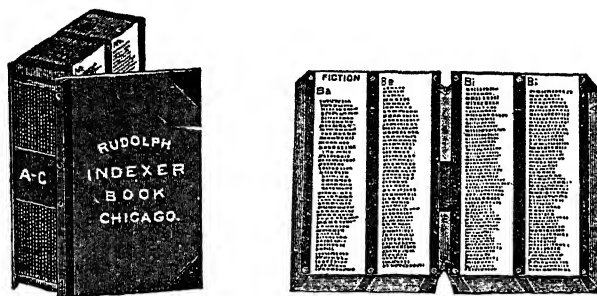


FIG. 112.—Rudolph Indexer Book (Section 322).

catalogues as the British Museum is that, owing to the number of entries, the occasional congestions and disorders where double columns of entries exist, it is more difficult to find a given entry than in the case of cards or slips properly guided and in accurate alphabetical order. This point may be further illustrated by the case of men or women who are not adepts at using alphabetical lists, and who turn up a particular word in a dictionary with much difficulty and loss of time.

324. **Card Catalogues.**—The card-index is the invention of librarians, and is perhaps the most important contribution to method that commerce owes to them. Cards for library cataloguing purposes were used in France in the middle of the eighteenth century; they were used in Trinity College, Dublin, early in the nineteenth century; and in 1852 they were introduced into the Bank of England for commercial indexing. The plan of keeping cards or slips on edge in boxes or drawers loosely, thereby giving unlimited means of expansion and intercalation, must have occurred to many minds as the best means

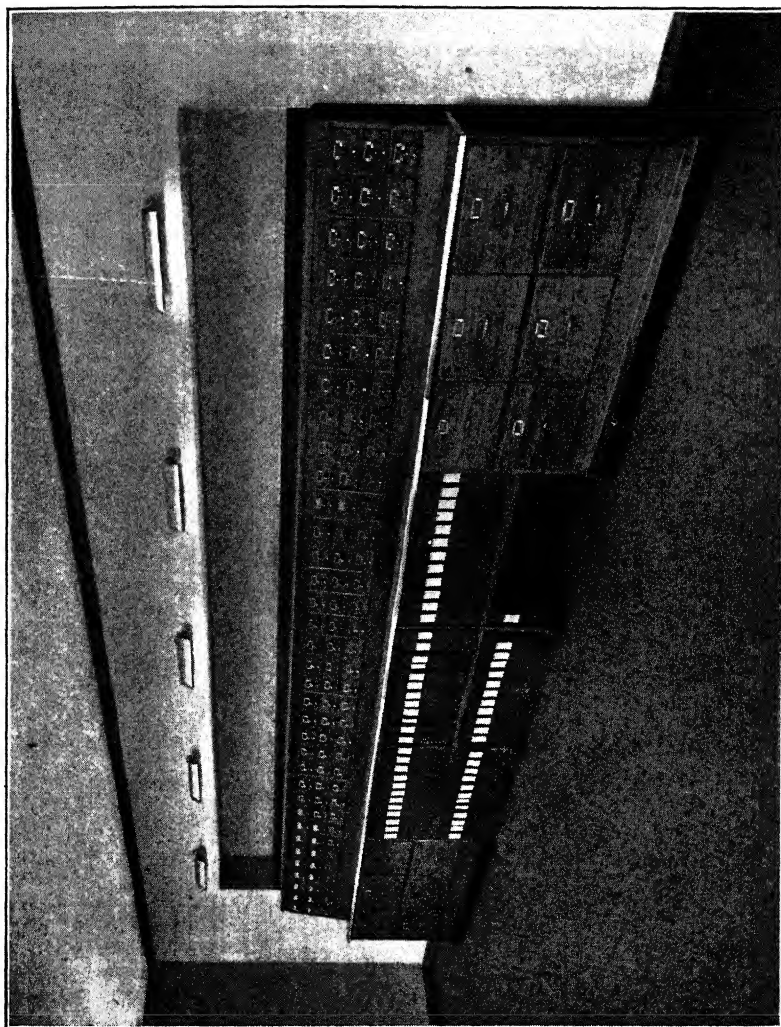


FIG. 113.

Card Catalogue Cabinet, with vertical file and shelves for Bibliographies or other Works (Section 325).

Library.

of maintaining perpetual alphabetical order. Single cards not attached in any way, save temporarily, possess unlimited powers of movability, and can be arranged in any kind of order when

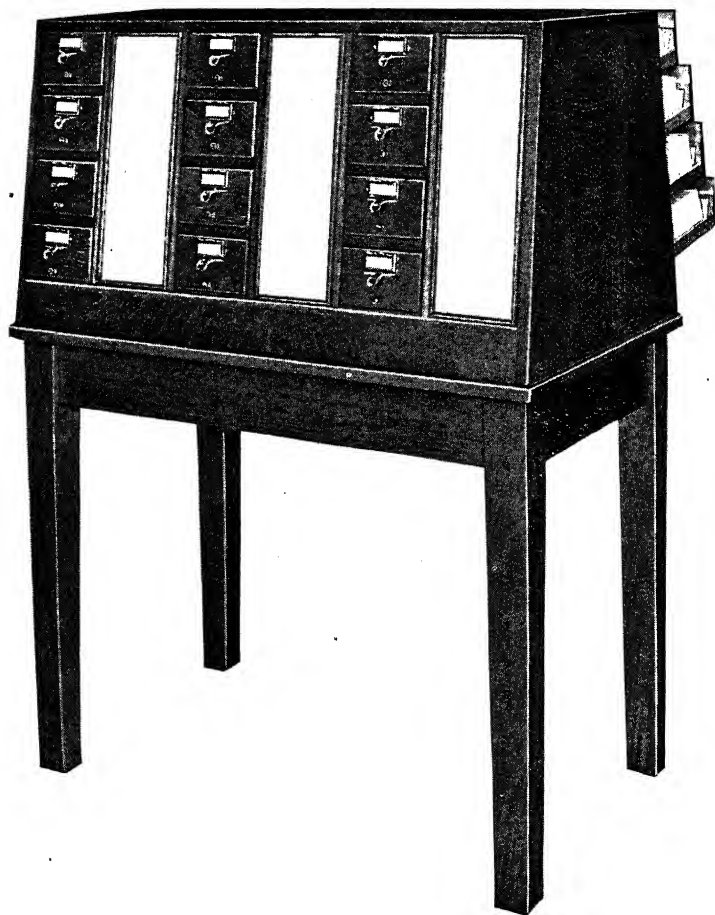


FIG. 114.—Two-way Card Cabinet with xylonite panel at back of opposite column of trays (Section 325). [Littico.]

assembled in numbers, because each card can be taken away or moved about or fresh cards added at any point in a series, without upsetting any adjoining card, or interrupting alphabetical order.

The standard cards are 5 inches \times 3 inches in size. The cards, when arranged, are separated into small divisions by means of projecting guides, on which are printed subject or author or other words or class numbers, which serve the same purpose as the running catch-words of a dictionary, only they are much more effective, because more conspicuous. They are secured by means of a rod which passes through holes punched in the lower part of the cards, and the rod is either locked or screwed into the back or front of the drawer.

325. The usual plan is to store the cards in the drawers of a cabinet, marking the contents of each drawer plainly on the

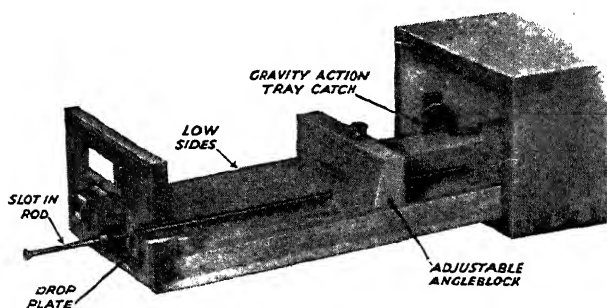


FIG. 115.—Sideless Card Catalogue Tray (Section 326).

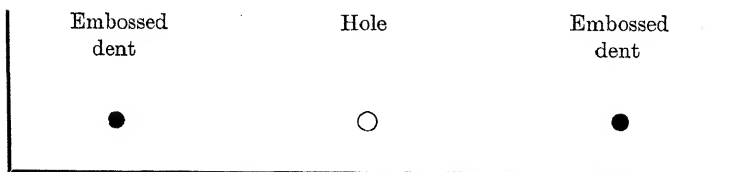
outside. Figs. 113-14 show how this is done in the modern types.

326. Various improvements have been made as the use of catalogue cabinets has advanced, including an adjustable angle-block, for supporting the cards at a suitable angle for easy consultation: this can be screwed up tight at any point in a drawer, so as to hold a smaller or larger number of cards in place; a special form of rod on which the cards are strung or filed, easily removable, but still capable of safeguarding them against misuse or misplacement; a special automatic catch at the front of the drawer to prevent it being pulled out accidentally, but which does not prevent any drawer from being taken away from the cabinet if required. Another important improvement introduced in 1902 was the modification in the sides of trays, whereby the woodwork was cut down so as to lighten the tray and enable the cards to be handled from the sides as well as the top. This variety is known as the "Sideless Tray" (Fig. 115). In the most modern form the cabinet is inclined backward from

bottom to top. This enables easy consultation of cards as the slope of the drawers causes the cards to fall automatically backwards into the position in which they can be read.

327. The card catalogue in cabinets of fixed drawers is held by some not to be such an effective arrangement as detachable trays or drawers stored in a suitable rack or cabinet. The fixed-drawer plan has various disadvantages, chief among which is the serious one that a single person consulting a cabinet may monopolize from 6,000 to 10,000 entries, according to the number of drawers forming a tier. Where there are four to six drawers in a tier it is impossible to adjust them so that both tall and short persons will find them equally accessible; and only a few persons can use the catalogue at one time, as two persons will practically cover up three tiers, thus in some cases cutting off from other users at least 20,000 or more entries. There is also the difficulty of filling up application forms for books, as no proper writing surfaces are available, although some modern cabinets have a horizontal shelf which slides in and out as required from the centre or from beneath the cabinet. In addition, where the face of the cabinet is not sloped as described above there is the difficulty of obtaining a good light on the lower drawers, and the large amount of space occupied by a large cabinet. To meet these difficulties card cabinets should be placed most carefully so that the person of average height can consult all drawers without trouble; and the extension shelf just mentioned should be provided; or, the cabinets should stand upon a table the top of which projects in front of them sufficiently to permit of drawers withdrawn from the cabinet being placed upon them. This shelf or table provides the desired writing surface; and small paper note-blocks on which readers can note catalogue particulars are part of the table equipment.

When printed entries are mounted on blank cards, it is advisable to "guard" them, in order to balance the additional thickness of the upper part, which causes bulging, by pricking the fronts of the cards, or embossing them by means of a blunt awl, thus:



A similar result may be obtained by pasting strips of paper of similar quality to that on which the printed entries are mounted on the lower part of the back of the card.

328. Various kinds of trays, described and figured below, are intended to replace the "cabinet" system; but it is clear that if every drawer is easily detached from a cabinet and if suitable table space is available their advantages are more theoretical than real. A good form, which is well safeguarded and not too heavy or clumsy, will be found in a tray which is provided with all necessary accessories in the form of locking-rod, guides, adjustable angle-block, outside label-holder, and felt pads to prevent it from scratching table-tops or other furniture. This kind of tray can be kept in racks of a convenient size, and users can remove it to a table for consultation.

329. It is unlikely hereafter that any but the standard 5 in. \times 3 in. catalogue card, with the ordinary cabinets having sideless drawers and locking-rods, will be extensively used; but it is desirable that other existing or past practical forms should be known. A French form of card-catalogue tray was invented

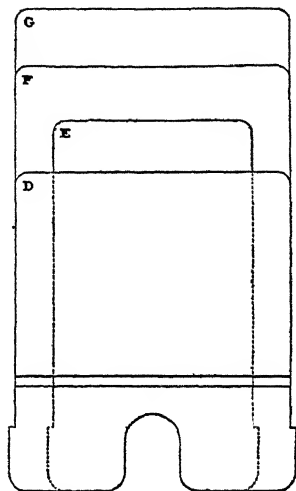


FIG. 116.—Cards for Bonnange Catalogue Trays (Section 329).

by F. Bonnange, of Paris, in 1866, and improved in 1874. In this, the methods of securing the card differs from the rod threading through perforations, as in English and American models. The cards are hinged, and have shoulders formed in the slightly thicker lower portion, as shown in the illustration (Fig. 116), which is also slotted to clear the fastening. The hinged cards shoulder into side grooves formed in the wooden trays, and the slotted portion is placed astride a powerful endless screw, which traverses the tray from end to end, and carries a suitable block which acts as a travelling clamp. The screw is worked by means of a key, and when turned to the right the block travels forward along the screw till the cards are all firmly clamped between it and the end of the tray; when turned to the left the block travels back and so releases the cards to enable insertions to be made. The upper portion of the cards being hinged,

and consequently free of the block, are not clamped, and can be turned over readily for purposes of consultation. Guides, alphabetical or numerical, may be inserted either above or at either side of the cards.

330. An Italian card tray on a somewhat similar principle to this was invented by A. Staderini, of Rome, in 1890. It differs from the Bonnange tray in having a sliding-block gearing with a ratchet which is fastened along the bottom and made

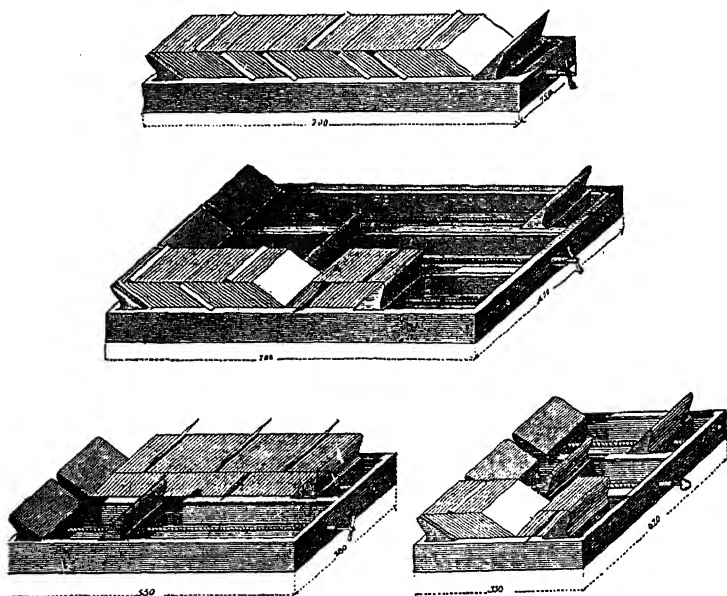


FIG. 117.—Bonnange Card Catalogue Trays (Section 329).

to engage or disengage with a key. The cards are similar in principle to those of the Bonnange system, save that the lower hinged half is not slotted. The illustration (Fig. 118) will explain better than words the appearance and other accessories of this tray.

Both the Bonnange and Staderini methods share in common an advantage of some importance, viz., the clamped lower portion of the card forms a counterfoil to show what has been taken, should a card by accident or design be removed or torn off. The accession number or brief title of the book can be written on the clamped portion of the card, and so will safeguard against loss and imperfections. This is an advantage

not possessed by any of the ordinary card methods, because when cards are torn from the rods they leave no trace, and become lost for ever, leaving it very problematical whether a catalogue is perfect or not.

331. A card catalogue on a somewhat similar principle to the French and Italian forms just described is known as the

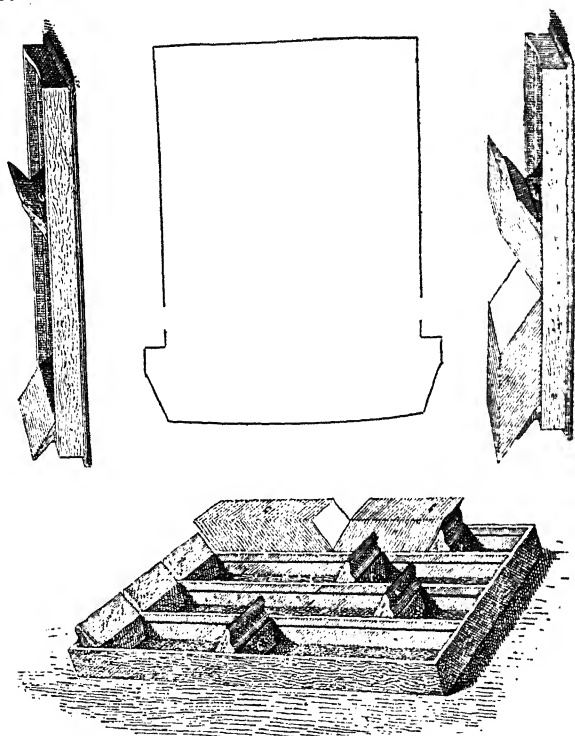


FIG. 118.—Staderini Card Trays and Hinged Card (Section 3:0).

Duplex Card Catalogue, and was invented in England to enable both sides of the cards to be used, thereby considerably enlarging the capacity of the catalogue, while materially reducing its bulk. It is fitted with falling ends which act as angle-blocks; a travelling angle-block can be adjusted and locked at any point; a locking-rod for threading the cards upon in order to secure them; and xylonite label-holders. The cards are larger than ordinary catalogue cards, and instead of being hinged are simply creased at a short distance above the rod

holes. This gives a slight bulge and enables the cards to have the necessary play. The trays are held lengthways in a position parallel to the body, instead of at right angles as in the case of ordinary trays, and the cards or leaves are simply turned over like those of a book.

The main objection to the card catalogue is the material one of the space it occupies ; indeed so serious is this problem that libraries may ultimately be driven back on the printed catalogue for the bulk of their stock, using the card catalogue only for additions. There are some libraries in which the cabinets occupy about one-third of the entire library, and in great libraries special rooms or corridors have been provided to contain them.

An extended, illustrated study of the card-cataloguing methodology is Sayers and Stewart's *The Card Catalogue*.

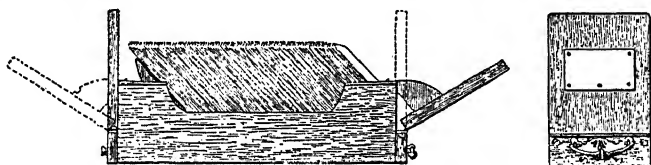


FIG. 119.—Duplex Card Catalogue (Section 331).

332. Sheaf Catalogues.—The sheaf catalogue is not so widely used as the card system in Britain, but, as we have shown, it has exactly the same advantages as regards the power of expansion and intercalation. It aims at combining the advantages of both book and card catalogues by : dividing the catalogue into handy sections so that the maximum number of readers can consult it at one time ; providing means for continuous expansion in alphabetical order ; safeguarding the contents of sections ; reducing the amount of storage space occupied ; and enabling users to handle and turn over the catalogue like the leaves of an ordinary book. The introduction of ordinary paper slips, which can be used in any typewriter, which can be easily stored in various forms of binders in book form, and which can be added to in manuscript without undoing the holder, is a real economy in library administration which has not received the attention it deserves. While 1,000 entries in a card catalogue will occupy from 750 to 840 cubic inches of space, the sheaf-holders most in use will not take up more than fifty-six cubic inches of space for the same number of entries. The writing surfaces is also much larger,

333. The slip catalogue known as the LEYDEN, from its first use in the University Library of Leyden, in Holland, in 1871, consists of bundles of slips, notched as shown in the illustration (Fig. 120), and secured by means of cord or catgut. The outer

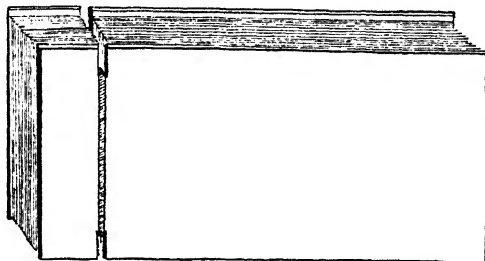


FIG. 120.—Leyden Slip Holder (Section 333).

boards are hinged, and notched to correspond with the slips, and the cord is tied firmly round the volume and into the slots, so as to bind the whole. These Leyden holders are only adapted for private or staff use, and must be kept in very thin sections, as the volumes get more loose and insecure the thicker they are

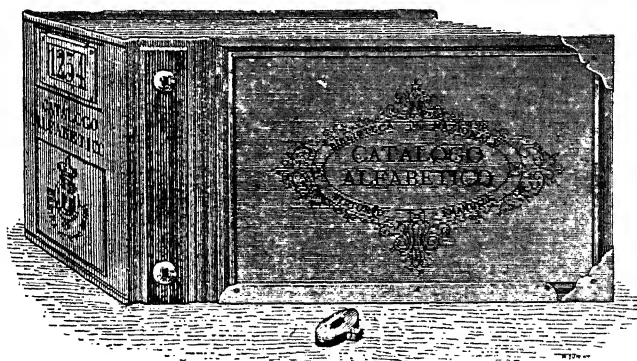


FIG. 121.—A Volume of Staderini Sheaf Catalogue (Section 334).

made. As a means of holding any kind of temporary slip, this is, however, a useful device.

334. A much more mechanically perfect slip catalogue-holder is the screw-binder invented by A. Staderini, of Rome. It comprises a fixed back and boards, to which two iron screw-bolts are attached. On these the slips, which are perforated to correspond with the bolts, are threaded, and the books are secured by

means of brass-screw-caps which fasten the boards to the bolts, and so make the volume rigid and the slips secure. These volumes are numbered and kept in pigeon-holes, which bear the volume numbers and letters denoting the section of the alphabet contained in each sheaf (Figs. 121-22).

335. A "sheaf"-holder on exactly the same principle, but with a different and neater fastening, was invented in 1891 by Mrs. Sacconi-Ricci, of Florence. This holder also fits into numbered pigeon-holes, and consists of perforated slips threaded

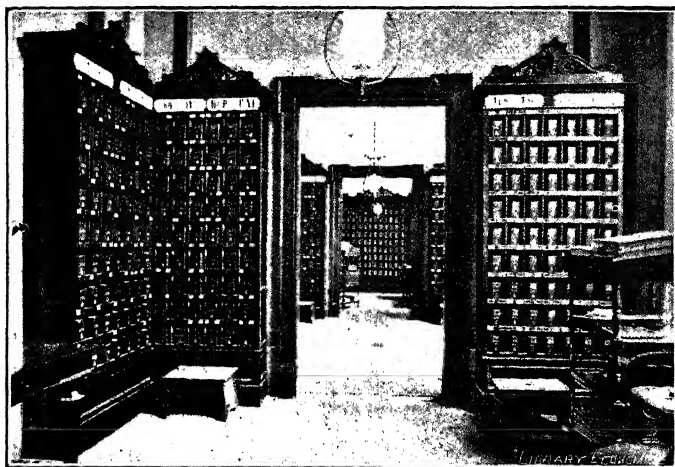


FIG. 122.—Staderini Sheaf Catalogue in the Victor Emmanuel Library, Rome (Section 334).

on to two upright rods, which are kept in place by means of a sliding bar which, when screwed into place, locks the slips and boards into one compact volume (Fig. 123).

336. The oldest of the British sheaf catalogues is the "Adjustable Catalogue-Holder," which was invented by A. W. Lambert about 1892. This has a flexible leather back, and the slips are bound and unbound by the contracting and expanding action of two cylindrical screws, turned by means of a metal key. It is not necessary, as in the case of all other sheaf-holders, to undo this one in order to remove the slips when additions are being made, the loosening of the screws being all that is necessary. The slips are punched at the back edge with bayonet-shaped or keyed slots, which give sufficient holding power when the screws are tightened to clamp the boards and slips into one solid

and firm volume. The book numbers, if written on the clamped portion of the slips, will remain in the sheaf. If entries should be wilfully torn out, and no catalogue could be reconstituted in perfect order without the knowledge of the librarian. Nylonite label-holders

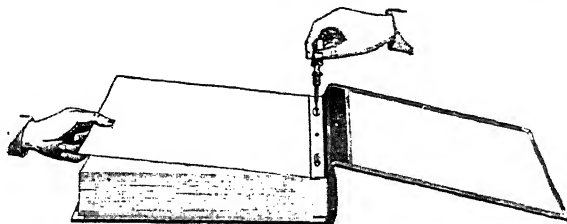


FIG. 123.—Sacconi Sheaf Catalogue (Section 335).

are attached to the back of this form of sheaf, which enable contents labels to be changed at will, without pasting or damaging the back. A rack or pigeon-holes can be provided in which to store these sheafs in numbered, alphabetical or class order.

337. A later form of it differs from the adjustable in having a rigid back, and but one screw. In other respects it is perhaps easier to manipulate than the binders just described.

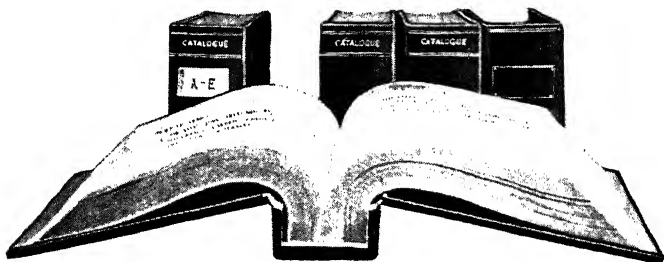


FIG. 124.—Adjustable Sheaf Catalogue. Open for Consultation (Section 336-337).

The holder consists of a strong wooden back to which two stout covers are attached by means of hinges, specially designed to guard against injury to the covers. Within the holder a special form of brass screw-fitting is mounted, upon which the slips are threaded, so that when the covers are closed the whole sheaf is firmly secured by means of a special screw. A few turns of the key suffices to lock or open the holder.

338. One way of maintaining a sheaf catalogue for public use, especially in open access libraries, is to provide a sheaf or

sheaves for each class of literature, and to enter the books in class order, using both sides of the slips for entries of small topics. These sheaves can be kept on the shelves with their classes. To this an author and title index can be provided in one alphabet, each author being kept on one slip or more, and both sides of the slips being used to ensure economy of space, and enable readers to find at once any particular book. Thus, on the front of the slip an author entry might appear as in Fig. 126, while on the back, or reverse side, the titles would be continued as on Fig. 127.

The matter of strict alphabetical order in such index slips is of little consequence, owing to the concentration of entries

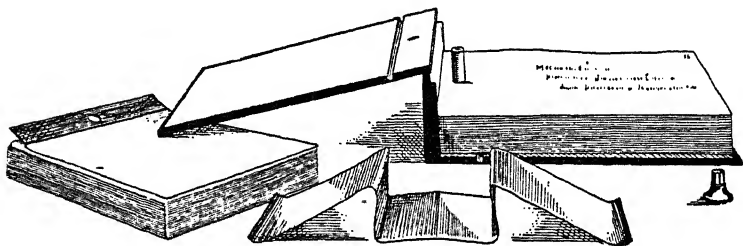


FIG. 125.—Adjustable Sheaf Catalogue, Open for making Additions with Cradle and Key (Section 336-337).

which enables a consulter to note the contents with one sweep of the eye.

Title entries can be done in similar fashion, the leading word being used as the index or catch-heading, as in Fig. 128. Here, again, strict alphabetical order need not be maintained, owing to the comparatively small compass in which the entries are displayed.

The classified sheaves can be kept in the same manner, or, if it is felt that a separate slip should be written for each book, to ensure strict order, this of course can be done. But it is at best doubtful if this is necessary save in very large subjects. For example, entries like the above are quite easily discovered (Fig. 129).

Where annotations on a large scale are employed, it is best to make use of a separate slip for each entry.

In all kinds of sheaf catalogues a fair margin should be allowed round the entries, to preserve them against finger-marks.

The slips are punched so as to secure absolute uniformity in

size and in the position of the holes. The hole being made in an oval form allows the slips to be easily threaded on, or removed from the screw-fitting.

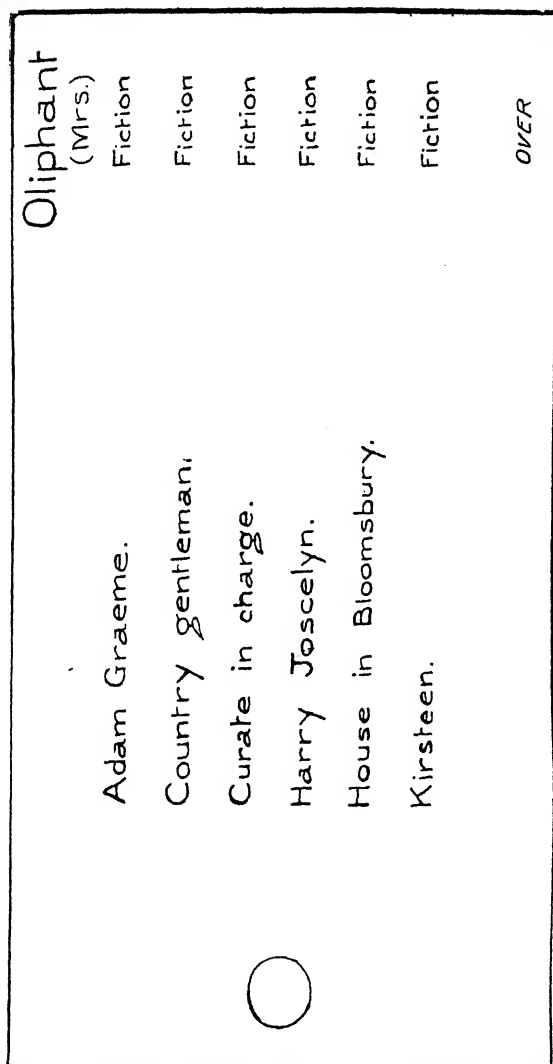


FIG. 126.—Front of Sheaf Catalogue Author Slip (Section 338).

The special construction of the holders prevents the slips from sagging or drooping at their free ends, a fault observable

in both the Staderini and Sacconi forms. It is usual to "guide" all forms of sheaf or slip catalogues, by boldly writing catch-words on both outer corners of each leaf (see Figs. 126-29), and

Oliphant (Mrs.)		
Laird of Norlaw.	Fiction	
Perpetual curate.	Fiction	
Hester.	Fiction	
		○
		<i>OVER</i>

FIG. 127.—Reverse of Sheaf Catalogue Author Slip (Section 338).

indicating the contents by means of the xylonite label-holders on the backs.

The whole subject of sheaf-cataloguing methodology is explained and illustrated in Stewart's *The Sheaf Catalogue*.

		Old
	Old court suburb, by Hunt	U 906
	Old curiosity shop, by Dickens	Fiction
	Old dominion, by Johnston	Fiction
	Old Mortality, by Scott	Fiction
	Old world in its new face, by Bellows	Q 037
	[and so on]	
		<i>OVER</i>

FIG. 128.—Sheaf Catalogue Title Slip (Section 338).

339. Placard Catalogues.—The most ordinary form of placard catalogue is a manuscript or printed list of books on a large sheet or sheets, which is framed and hung on the wall where readers can see it. There are several varieties of these framed lists, which are used chiefly for lists of additions. A form giving the power of moving single entries has been devised

in England which is better than anything else usually seen. This consists of a frame with a movable back, on which vertical

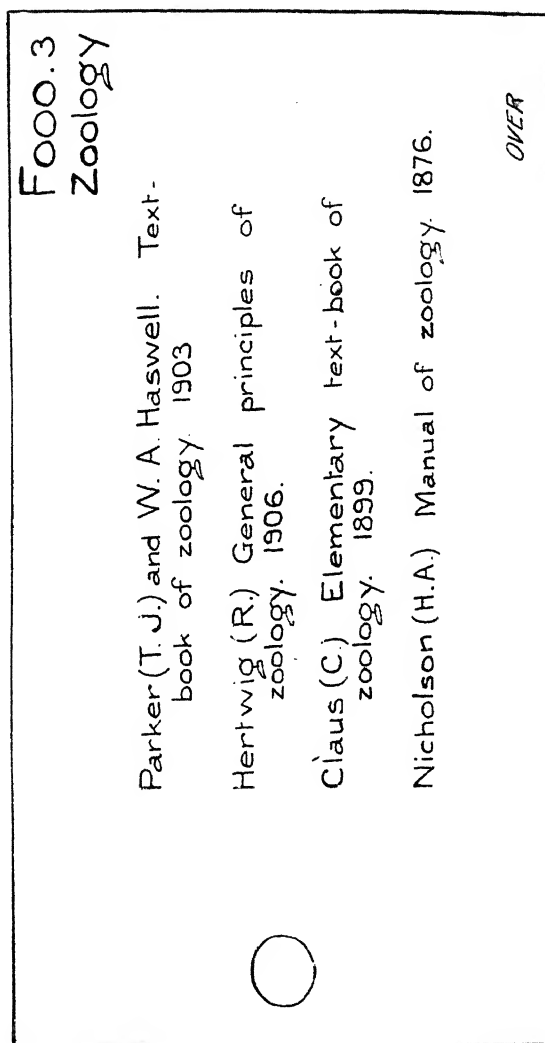


FIG. 129.—Sheaf Catalogue Subject Slip (Section 338).

xylonite slips are fastened in such a way as to form long columns with flanged sides. Under the flanges can be slipped pieces of cardboard the width of the columns, which slide up and down

in the length of the column as required. The titles of new books can be written on these cards and arranged in any order. If blank cards are left between every letter of the alphabet or every class, additional entries can be added at any moment. If several frames are used, some hundreds of new books can be catalogued, and when full the entries can be transferred to the printed bulletin, or otherwise utilized, to free the frames for further additions. This adjustable accessions catalogue corresponds in principle with the adjustable Periodical List (Section 527).

340. Panoramic Catalogues.—Several methods have been proposed or devised for displaying catalogue entries on an endless chain in a panoramic or continuous form, but none of them has been generally adopted.

BIBLIOGRAPHY (CHAPTERS XVIII–XIX)

The principal literature of the subject of cataloguing has been mentioned in the text, and much of the best, more recent writing is in periodicals; moreover, every general work on libraries has a chapter or more on the subject. The following is offered as a selection of the other literature in separate form:

341. General:

Akers, S. G. *Simple Library Cataloguing*, 2nd ed., 1933. A.L.A., Chicago.

A.L.A. *Cataloguers' and Classifiers' Year-Book*, 1929 to date. 1930. Chicago.

Bishop, W. W. *Practical Handbook of Modern Library Cataloguing*, 1914. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins.

(One of the most useful of "organizer's" books.)

Delisle, Leopold. *Instructions Élémentaires et Techniques pour la Mise et le Maintien en Ordre des Livres d'une Bibliothèque*, 1910.

Howe, H. E. *The Catalogue*. A.L.A. *Man. of Lib. Econ.*, xix, 1927. Chicago.

MacPherson, Harriett D. *Some Problems in Cataloguing*. 1936. A.L.A., Chicago.

Quinn, J. H., and Acomb, H. W. *Manual of Cataloguing and Indexing*. 1933.

(This work has been severely criticised, but may usefully be read after Sharp's *Cataloguing*.)

Thorne, W. B. *First Steps in Library Cataloguing*, 1917. L.A.A., Series 8.

Wheatley, H. B. *How to Catalogue a Library*, 1889. Stock.

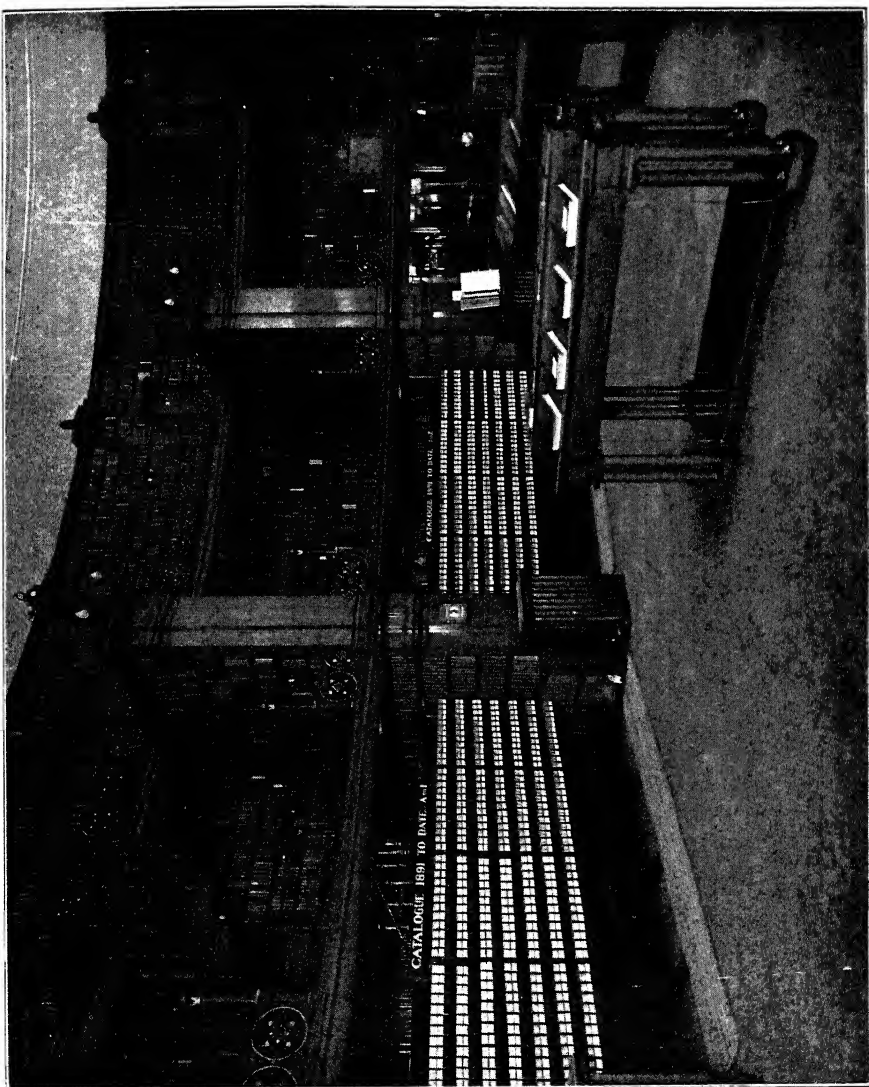


FIG. 130.—The Sheaf Catalogue in the Pierson Reading Room, Liverpool (Sections 337-338). See also Fig. 187.

342. Codes, Rules, etc. :

- Aberdeen University Library. Condensed Cataloguing Rules, 1914.
New York State Library School. Fellows, J. D. Cataloguing Rules : for the Course in Elementary Cataloguing, 1914. Library School, 36.
Wisconsin University Library School. Turvill, Helen. Cataloguing Rules, 1912.

343. Annotation :

- Savage, E. A. Manual of Descriptive Annotation in Library Catalogues, 1906. (Grafton.)
Sayers, W. C. Berwick. First Steps in Annotation in Catalogues, 1932. L.A.A., Series 9.

344. Children's Catalogues (see also Division XI) :

- Johnson, M. F. Cataloguing and Classification for Elementary School Libraries. 1929. N.Y., Wilson.
Mann, M. E. The Cataloguing of Juvenile Books. *In* Subject Headings for Use in a Dictionary Catalogue of Juvenile Books. 1916. A.L.A.,
Sayers, W. C. Berwick. The Catalogue and How to Make It. *In his* Manual of Children's Libraries. 1932.
Sayers and Stewart. Catalogues for Children : with a Code of Rules, 1905.

345. Subject Headings :

- A.L.A. List of Subject Headings for use in Dictionary Catalogues. 3rd ed., by M. J. Briggs, 1911.
Mann, M. Subject Headings for use in Dictionary Catalogues of Juvenile Books, 1916. A.L.A.
Library of Congress. Subject Headings used in the Dictionary Catalogues of the L. of C. ; edited by M. W. MacNair. 1928. Washington.

346. Card Catalogues : Sheaf Catalogues :

- Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh. Rules for Filing Cards in the Dictionary Catalogues, 1917.
Ormerod, James. Style in Card Cataloguing, 1933. Derby, The Author.
Sayers and Stewart. The Card Catalogue, 1913. (Grafton.)
Stewart, J. D. The Sheaf Catalogue, 1909. (Grafton.)

347. Co-operative Cataloguing :

- Jahr, T., and Strohm, A. J. Bibliography of Co-operative Cataloguing and the Printing of Catalogue Cards : with References to International Bibliography and the Universal Catalogue, 1850-1902. 1903.

348. Cataloguer's Reference Books :

New York State Library. Selections of Cataloguer's Reference Books in New York State Library, 1903.

See also Brown's Library Classification and Cataloguing and Stewart's Sheaf Catalogue.

349. Printing the Catalogue :

Philip, A. J. The Production of the Printed Catalogue, 1910. Atkinson.

Walter, F. K. Library Printing. A.L.A. Man. of Lib. Econ., xxxii, 1923. Chicago.

For articles, see Cannons : P, Cataloguing and Indexing, and Library Literature under all the headings set out above.

other risks. Moreover, the principle of classification—alphabetical or subject—is the foundation of successful filing which admits of rapid reference and completeness ; for it is beyond question desirable that all correspondence and other documents, relating to any given matter, should be kept in one place only.

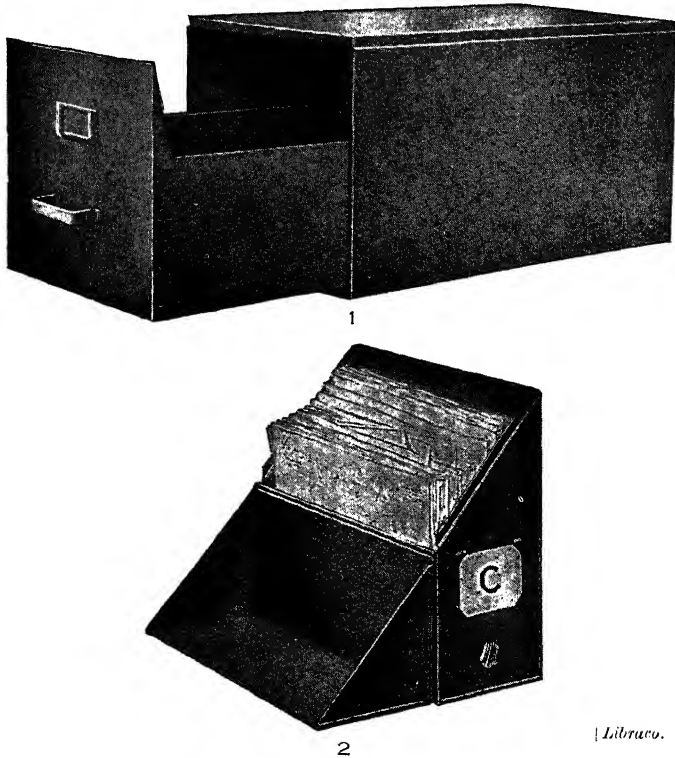


FIG. 132.—The Vertical File : 1, Steel transfer case ; 2, Steel box
(Section 315).

For example, the bookbinding transactions of a library involve correspondence with several bookbinders, specifications, instructions, orders, incidental correspondence respecting defects, errors, etc.—and all this material should come together for the simple reason that it is used together. To ensure this the material must be filed individually as a general rule ; that is to say, in such a way that additional material can be inserted. There are various methods : the Stolzenberg file, for instance, and other files which resemble it. These

are generally folders of stout manila, having two flexible prongs inside at the fold which penetrate and fold over the margins of the papers and so hold them in place ; and when an insertion is made the prongs are lifted and the new paper fitted into position. More recent is loose filing in folders in which the material is not secured in any way, and insertions are therefore

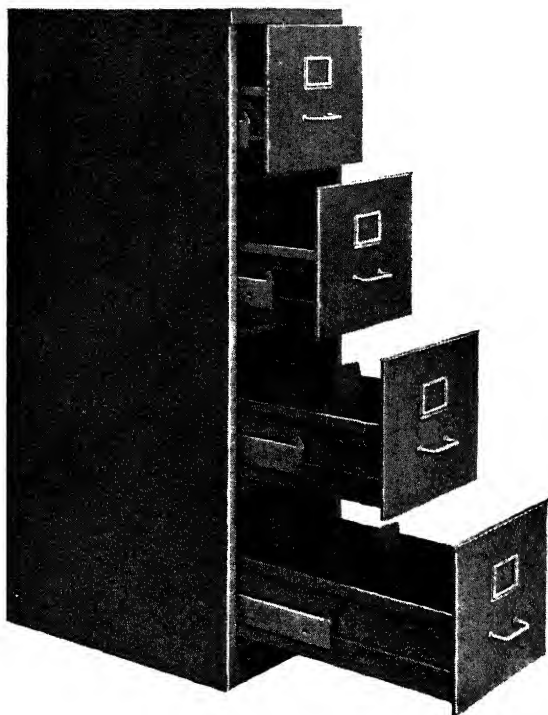


FIG. 133.—The Vertical File A Steel Filing Cabinet (Section 351). *[Libraire.]*

possible without obstruction of any kind. While papers are in process of use they are temporarily filed in cases or smaller cabinets, and the steel box is sometimes used for storage filing of old correspondence which must be retained but would congest the current files if kept in them. The current files of folders are cabinets of drawers, which of course can be added to as required. The average office desk is also now equipped with drawers for vertical filing. Figs. 131–33 show all the usual equipment of folder, case and cabinet, and there are a

number of varieties and materials from which all of these are made, and much ingenuity goes to the devising of tabs, guides, runners, etc.

In these folders correspondence and other documents are filed together with the carbon copies of replies. The carbon copy of a letter is, of course, an exact facsimile of it made at the one original operation of writing or typing the letter; it is thus an exact record, and additions or corrections are easily visible.

352. The arrangement of papers in the files is a matter upon which opinion differs, but except for general correspondence, which may be filed alphabetically in folders—one or more folders as required being devoted to each letter of the alphabet—it is generally found that a classified arrangement is to be preferred. Even in the alphabetical folders an expansible number should be given to each folder in order that it may be indexed briefly and clearly. For the classification of correspondence several schemes have been devised; that, for example, in the latest edition of Dewey's *Decimal Classification* is full, flexible and practical; and perhaps that which is most used is L. Stanley Jast's *Decimal Classification of Library Economy and Office Papers*, 1906 (revised 1907). The main divisions, a subdivision, and a section of the complete tables will enable us to illustrate its use (see p. 315).

353. Everything that comes into the library or goes out of it, except the actual books, will fit into such a classification, and many be numbered and indexed by it. All correspondence is marked boldly with the number of the division to which it belongs, and is filed in the folders which bear the number. The folders are numbered on the projecting edge of the broader flap, or on the tab, as shown in Fig. 131, and are arranged numerically according to the notation order. It may be objected that this method separates letters from one correspondent who may write at various times or on various subjects; but experience proves that except in a few cases, such as are provided for under 55, where general correspondence is arranged alphabetically under the names of the writers, the questions the file is required to answer are not answered in terms of names of correspondents; moreover, the alphabetical name index, which is an indispensable accompaniment of the method, brings together all references to letters from any given correspondent. The index should be on cards, and should give the name and address of the correspondent, the classification number of the

<i>Main Divisions.</i>		<i>Main Sub-Divisions.</i>		<i>Section of Complete Tables.</i>	
0	General.	4	GOVERNMENT AND SERVICE.	42	COMMITTEE. TRUSTEES.
01	Librarian. Personal.	41	Council.	421	Election. Co-opted Members.
1	Legislation. Founding.	42-3	Committee.	422	Powers.
	Classes of Libraries.	44-5	Staff.	423	Standing Orders.
2	Extension work.	46	Rules and regulations for readers.	424	Chairman.
3	Building.			4243	Matters to be submitted to Chairman.
4	Government and Service.	47			Vice-Chairman.
5	Executive.	48	Relations with other Corporation Committees.	4245	Clerk.
6	Accession. Description. Conservation.	49	Relations with other Corporation Departments.	425	Minutes.
7	Departments.			426	Notices of Meetings.
8	Publications.			427	Agenda. Notices of Motion.
9	Other.	5	EXECUTIVE.	4285	Attendances.
		51-2	Finance.	429	Next Meeting.
		53	Stationery. Supplies.	4291	Reports. Returns.
		54		4292	Periodical (fortnightly, monthly, or quarterly).
		55	Communication. Correspondence.	4294	Annual.
		56-8	Office.	4295	Next Annual.
		59		4296	Special.
				43	SUB-COMMITTEES.
				431	Finance.
				432	Officers.
				433	Books.
					etc. etc.

FIG. 134.—A Specimen of the Joint Classification of Library Economy (Sections 352-53).

subject, and the dates of the letters received or dispatched (see Fig. 135).

Not only does this index serve as a key to the correspondence file (Section 352); it may contain, without prejudice to its value, all addresses which the librarian deems it expedient to keep, with telephone numbers, telegraphic addresses, and cable codes where necessary.

It will be obvious that a classified file of this kind will accommodate all other documents and lists—book-lists, reports made

SMITH, H. J., & SONS, LTD.

147A PATERNOSTER ROW,

LONDON, E.C.2.

'Phone—London Wall 6692.

Code—A.B.C.

1919.

623—14 My.

623— 9 Je.

631—18 Jy.

etc.

FIG. 135.—Address, and Correspondence, Index-Card. Size 5 × 3 inches (Section 353).

on subjects or departments, minutes, and in fact any miscellaneous papers whatsoever.

354. The effectiveness, and indeed safety, of any individual indexing or filing system depends upon the care with which it is manipulated in order that misplacements of papers or cards may not occur. The fear of carelessness or ignorance on the part of assistants has caused some librarians to prefer an alphabetical system of filing. When this is so it should be alphabetical by subjects, except in the case of general correspondence which deals with no particular subjects. Library communications are frequently of this general nature, but the vital letters are upon subjects; for example,

Exhibitions,
Lectures,
Readings,
Story Hours,

are headings taken at random for which folders would be included. In the arranging of courses of lectures, for example, a librarian may write and receive any number of letters ; and he wants them together and not in an alphabetical order of correspondents. This alphabetical-subject system requires an index to such folders as do not come under general correspondence ; folders coming under the latter would be most useful in a sequence separate from the subject folders, but such separation is not essential.

355. If either of the two methods outlined is thought to be too complex—neither is so really—the old theory that “the only natural arrangement for letters is an alphabetical one” will rule the choice of method. This simply means arrangement alphabetically by the name of the correspondent, and in this method the file is self-indexing to the extent of the names. If it is made the rule to place letters from institutions under the names of such institutions, and to insert, where necessary, in strict alphabetical order slips of paper to hold all cross-references from the names of officers, there will be no need for further indexing. If topical indexes are required they can be compiled on blank sheets, the subject word being written boldly on the top of the sheet, and the names of the writers on the topic in alphabetical order below. These sheets can take their place in alphabetical order among the letters. The method seems rather crude to a librarian trained to use systematic methods.

356. All working correspondence files should be weeded out at intervals to remove matter of transient interest and to relieve congestion. The librarian should at the first mark such papers as are to be filed—some correspondence is merely formal, and has no information value, and need not be filed even temporarily ; but it is better to file everything and to weed frequently than to lose any important document by initial carelessness. When weeding out, the matter of merely temporary interest may be destroyed ; and that which it is desired to keep may be transferred in strict order to filing boxes, of which there are several forms in cardboard, cloth-board or steel, or to another storage filing cabinet, thus leaving the working files free from any but current matter.

357. Prints, Photographs and Maps.—Unframed, unmounted “illustration” material, which includes prints, illustrations, photographs, maps, and broadsides, requires separate and careful filing. In the first place it should, if possible, be mounted on “nature,” “sultan mecca,” or similar mounts of

uniform size. This applies particularly to prints and photographs, and is the best means of ensuring their preservation and ease in handling and consulting them. They then need close classification by one of the existing systematic schemes to line on so far as may be with the classification of the books ; and it is often necessary to expand a classification considerably to differentiate the almost innumerable sub-topics which may form the subjects of pictures. Such expansion is skilled work and should be done only by an expert classifier. An examination of the classification proposed for local photographic surveys in Gower, Jast and Topley's *The Camera as Historian*, 1916

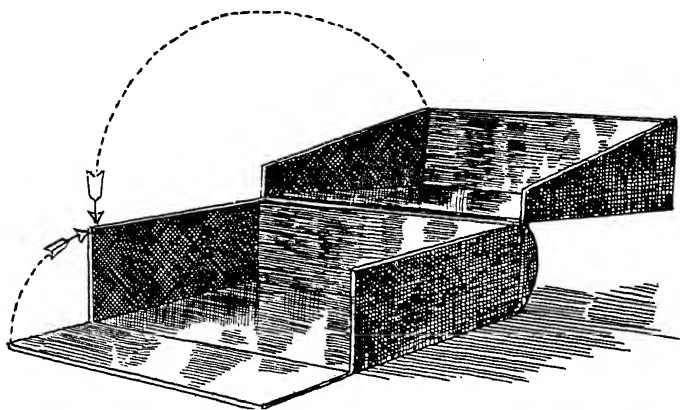


FIG. 136.—Storage Box for Pamphlets, Letters, etc. (Section 3:77).

(Sampson, Low), will show how minute a classification photographs demand. Each mount should bear a label, in the top left corner preferably, giving the class-number, the subject, and other particulars (see the sections on Photographic Surveys, etc.). The filing may be in classification order in boxes which will lie flat on the shelves ; and the most economical boxes are those made of the stoutest material compatible with lightness, such as cardboard covered with rexine, pegamoid cloth, etc. ; heavy boxes of wood are awkward to handle and should be avoided. Better than boxes, because of the ease of consultation and insertion permitted, is a vertical file in drawers. In this the prints are inserted loosely like cards in a card-index, and no lifting and little handling are necessary to find any given print. For vertical filing the mounts should be the stoutest available and a further protection is to use folders to hold groups of

prints—one to a topic as a rule. The projecting edge of the folder may bear the topic number.

358. Maps which are not too large to be folded can be filed on the vertical system, but other solutions of the map-filing problem have been suggested: rolling them and inserting them in tubes in a cabinet on the principle of the umbrella stand; mounting them on spring rollers and fixing them over bookcases where they can be drawn down to be consulted exactly as a blind is drawn; and an ingenious method devised by Mr. G. T. Shaw, and described in *Public Libraries: their Organization, etc.*, 1918 (Library Association), is worth examination. For the many small maps that all libraries possess, the vertical file is probably the best method, but flat filing in such boxes as Fig. 137 depicts is sometimes preferred. Single sheets of the Ordnance Survey, or other similar maps which are much

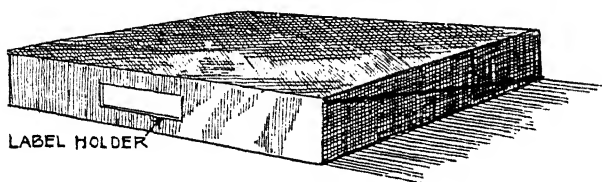


FIG. 137.—Box for Filing Prints and Maps (Sections 358 and 490).

handled, should be mounted on linen or some similar material, and an additional protection from tearing is to bind them with tape, which may be done by folding the tape over the edges and running them round with an ordinary sewing machine.

359. Newspaper Clippings.—The vertical file is an excellent instrument for dealing with newspaper clippings. These, in the case of matters of temporary interest, may be dropped into classified folders. For clippings which it is desired to keep, it is better to provide a mount, which may be of paper of sufficient substance to bear them, and paste them down, writing in the top left corner the class-number, subject, source and date of the clipping. The older methods of filing clippings in newspaper-cuttings books, or in any form of guard book, have the disadvantage of inflexibility, want of rational means of indexing the contents, and occasion reference in course of time to several volumes for matter on any subject.

360. General.—For most filing purposes quarto folders, to accommodate quarto papers, which file in standard-sized

drawers, are sufficient ; but both drawers and folders can be obtained in foolscap and other sizes. As in the case of card systems, the librarian should study the many variations of filing " folder " now available. They are excellent forms with a spring back which grips the papers and yet is so easily adjusted that it has all the advantages of loose filing without the danger of muddle that may arise if the folder is dropped. And notwithstanding our advocacy of the loose method of filing for papers which have an invariable chronological appearing and are valuable in that order, there is much to be said for folders which have steel prongs or other grips, for example Stolzenberg files ; and these have also the never-to-be-discounted virtue of book form. Such papers are minutes, periodical reports on special departments, financial analyses, book-lists, etc. Moreover, although the standard Stolzenberg cabinet accommodates its folders in horizontal fashion, the latter are also suitable for filing vertically in the drawers recommended for general purposes.

361. Lantern Slides and Negatives.—Modern libraries collect and preserve, occasionally even make for their own use, lantern slides and negatives. The method recommended for storing these is precisely similar to that for prints ; that is to say, in drawers in cabinets of suitable dimensions. Such cabinets are made by several firms specializing in photographic apparatus and drawers can be obtained of a size to accommodate either slides or negatives. Without being dogmatical upon the point it may safely be said that the best arrangement of slides is a classified one in drawers, the classification number being written on a label on the mount of the slide and on the top edge of the binding. If the slide is made from a negative in the possession of the library the number of the negative should also appear on the mount.

362. Negatives require more careful treatment, as the film is subject to damage if unprotected. They are also generally larger than lantern slides ; and separate cabinets, or separate drawers, are desirable to hold them. A useful method is to insert each in a small manila folder bearing the number on its edge, which number should also be written in ink (white is best) on the corner of the negative. Negatives may be arranged by accession numbers, as they are rarely wanted more than one at a time ; and the slide catalogue will refer from slide to negative as well as be a direct reference to the latter.

363. The index or catalogue of slides may be on cards

arranged as a rule by titles or subjects, as the photographer or slide-maker's name is rarely wanted. The following example of card shows the title, source, location, and classification number of a slide and the number of its negative :

656 LOCOMOTIVES.

Ble. Blenkinsop's Engine, with Rack-Rail, 1811.

Print—	Lantern Slide
Process	Coloured.
Size 3 in. × 3 in.	
Negative 18.	Lecture—Railways.
66675 P.	

FIG. 138.—Lantern-slide Index Card. Size 5 × 3 inches (Section 363).

Slides which form lecture sets and are invariably used together may be filed as sets, in spite of the fact that the others may be classified. After all, the rule of classification itself is that things used together must be placed together.

364. Indexes.—Probably no work demands the use of indexes so imperatively as library work. The catalogue is merely an extension of an index, and the borrowers' register (which is dealt with in Section 417, etc.) is in its most convenient form merely an index. We have already dealt with the indexes for correspondence, lantern slides, etc., and it will be more convenient to deal with the indexes to prints and maps in Sections 468, etc. Here we can mention only one or two administrative indexes, with the general remark that the methods described are not to be regarded as stereotyped, but are merely suggestions which librarians may adapt to their special needs.

THE CARD DIARY.—A useful little card index is one which may go on a desk, and is guided with the days of the week, and has such other guides as "This Week," "To-day," "Next Week," "Miscellaneous matters," etc., which serves as a reminder to its user. Behind the appropriate guide are filed cards referring to the matters which are to be dealt with at the

described, and the exact place where the articles are stored is indicated by a cross marked on the diagram, as shown above. Of course, every separate receptacle must have its own series of specially drawn cards. The index is made by arranging these cards in the alphabetical order of the names of the various articles. Any one wanting a new fine receipt book, and not knowing where to find it, would look up this index under the word "Fine" and there he would find the card which indicates not only the receptacle where these books were stored, but also the exact position. This card may be combined with the inventory card described in the next chapter (Section 377).

F	MASEFIELD, JOHN			
	<i>Tragedy of Nan</i>			
	Grant Richards, 4s. 6d. net			
<table border="0" style="width: 100%;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;"> Accession No. 23,526 Incomplete ✓ Dirty ✓ Worn out Out of date New ed. Yes. Heinemann 1928. Date added. Apr. 1922. </td> <td style="width: 50%;"> Date withdrawn, 25 : 5 : 30. No. of copies in Lib., 4. Worth replacing : ✓ Yes. No. Transferred. Marked in Acc. Bk. ✓ J.K. Issues, 83 Libraries. CNWS </td> </tr> </table>			Accession No. 23,526 Incomplete ✓ Dirty ✓ Worn out Out of date New ed. Yes. Heinemann 1928. Date added. Apr. 1922.	Date withdrawn, 25 : 5 : 30. No. of copies in Lib., 4. Worth replacing : ✓ Yes. No. Transferred. Marked in Acc. Bk. ✓ J.K. Issues, 83 Libraries. CNWS
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FIG. 140.—Withdrawals Card (Section 366).

Another plan would be to mark every cupboard or other receptacle with a letter or number. As these places would have glass doors, if they had any at all, there would be no necessity to mark separate shelves or pigeon-holes further. It is not always possible, or even desirable, to fix the location of supplies beyond the main receptacle. A reference to a cupboard is quite near enough for any one having eyes in his head. To these various receptacles an index on cards or slip books as before can readily be made. The card should bear the name of the article at one of its top corners, and on the opposite corner the number or letter of the place where it is to be found. If necessary the remainder of the card or slip can be used for setting out the dates and quantities of successive orders of the article. This will be found a very useful form of inventory.

365. The indexes of minute books are usually kept in the books themselves and not separately. If a thumb index has not been provided, a few pages, say, twenty-six, may be reserved

MISSING

355 Legion of Frontierswomen. Pocock, Roger (Ed.)
Frontierswomen's Pocket Book.

Missing on Oct. 1912.

Stock No. 19843.

Found on 28th Jan. 1919.

Where found—*In a Newton pillar box. Returned by Postal
Authorities.* —E. L. M.

Condition

Replaced

FIG. 141.—Missing Books Index Card (Section 367).

Shelves .				
Repairs .				
Recasing .				
Binding .				
Withdrawals.				
Reference .				

FIG. 141A.—Missing Books Index Card, Back (Section 367).

at the beginning or end of the book, in which an alphabetical sequence can be spaced out in pencil. It is equally clear, for all the reasons given in favour of the individual entries that card permit, that these indexes may be made on cards.

366. Withdrawn Books.—The card is a useful medium for recording withdrawals, and furnishes ample room for particulars (see Fig. 140).

367. Stocktaking Results.—Books missing at stocktaking are conveniently indexed on cards (see Fig. 141).

The back of the card indicates the dates at which examinations were made of the various places where the missing book might be traced (see Fig. 141A).

368. Other.—Other indexes which have been found of value are a general administrative index, with sections allotted to suggestions for activities ; information given from the libraries, and not given (a most important matter as revealing deficiencies needing remedy) ; the location and distribution of keys when the latter are in the hands of several people ; classification decisions ; and, indeed, there is no limit to the use of the card index as an administrative tool. One simple and invaluable index in libraries where lectures are given is a Lecturers' Index, with guides for Offers, Next Series, Current Lectures, Past Lectures, behind which are placed cards bearing the names and addresses of lecturers, the titles and other particulars of their lectures, dates of delivery, etc. The mere indexing of such materials affords many suggestions and reduces lecture-organization to a very simple process.

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(Somewhat out of the library province, but a sound work on mechanised business method which librarians might consult.)

For articles, consult Index of Cannons, pp. 86-98, Indexing and Filing Methods, and Library Literature under these headings.

The catalogues of card index and vertical filing supply firms offer valuable illustrated suggestions.

DIVISION VII

MAINTENANCE AND ROUTINE WORK

CHAPTER XXI

PRINTING, STATIONERY AND RECORDS

372. In Section 315-16 the desirability of good printing in library forms, letter-headings, lists, posters and documents of all kinds was implied ; and a study of the examples there given of catalogue-printing will show to the older reader how greatly the printing craft has improved in late years ; insomuch that it may be said that everyone using books is now more " type-conscious " than was the case. It is a good general rule that the librarian should maintain touch with the developments of the printer's craft as shown in printing journals and the catalogues of type-manufacturers, and should examine every book and other print he receives from this point of view. This last is not a useless injunction as it is rather remarkable but true that most men read without noticing the character of the type they read ; and it is probable that if the type does intrude upon the consciousness, as type, it is badly used ; art here should conceal art. On general principles such a work as Horace Hart's *Rules for Compositors and Readers at the University Press, Oxford*, 1930, gives much assistance, especially on such matters as the preparation of copy, proof corrections, approved spellings, etc. On the question of spelling the directions to the printer should be precise as some firms have their own " rules of the house " in this matter with which the librarian may not agree.

The main requirement of printing is good taste, and this means perfect suitability for the purpose in view. This is not always realized and some library printing is difficult to read, often monotonous, or, the opposite extreme, mixes types in a manner that offends. Bizarre, extravagant types are common enough, which attract momentary attention and then repel by their strangeness ; it may be said that any good, clear

standard type is to be preferred to these ; but this must not prevent the use of new types which are good. Samples of the printed forms issued by the modern librarians—at Hendon, Hornsey, Dagenham, Leeds and Bristol amongst others—should be studied ; but we do not intend to suggest which are the best, and it must be recognized that fashions in type change almost daily. The forms given in these pages are selected from examples which are at present approved ; and when a piece of printing is repeated it should be scrutinized to determine if it is necessary at all, and, if so, if it can be bettered in any way. An active library does, and should, issue a fair amount of printed matter and opportunities for revision are frequent.

The principles observed in the making of a good book should apply to all printed text. These are in brief : A few simple faces correctly used are to be preferred to elaborate type combinations unless the latter are most skilfully done ; the lines should contain about eleven or twelve words on the average, and not more, as longer lines tire the eyes ; leadings should be used fairly generously and will increase legibility ; ample margins should be used and the largest be at the foot of the page ; and it is wise to avoid work that has nothing to justify it except its originality, and, even in matters of punctuation, in which printers have been masterful of late, a conservative method of treatment appears to be right for library work. These are mere generalizations, having their value, but indicating a problem which only experience and co-operation with good printers can solve. Good work has been done by the members of the Association of Assistant Librarians in cultivating a “sense of types,” as careful study of the reviews in *The Library Assistant* in recent years and of the printing of that journal itself will show. A recent useful book, focussed on the library problem, is V. G. Pintress's *Buying Print, for Librarians, Curators and those Engaged in Book Business*,¹ 1936.

373. Forms and Blanks.—Most of the important forms and blanks have already been described and figured under the different departments to which they refer, and this section will, therefore, only deal with a few general forms. **NOTEPAPER** of various sizes should be provided, three being the usual number, but for most correspondence quarto and foolscap are adequate. On each of these should be printed the arms and name of the town, the librarian's name—although some librarians prefer

¹ The Librarian Series of Practical Manuals, A. J. Philip, Gravesend.

their letter paper to be anonymous, which shows modesty but deprives the correspondent of what is surely useful information—telephone number, and any other information thought necessary. Memorandum forms for brief communications, and post-cards, are also obvious necessities. Intercommunication memorandum forms, of which the following (Fig. 142) is an example, are desirable for notes between libraries and with officers of the other public departments. The communication

Urban District Council of Coulsdon and Purley	
PUBLIC LIBRARIES DEPARTMENT	
<u>MEMORANDUM</u>	
From the Chief Librarian.	To.
_____ 19	_____ 19
	<i>For reply</i>

FIG. 142.—Memorandum for Intercommunications. The size is usually quarto (Section 373).

is written in the left column, the answer on the right. Two copies should be sent, one to be retained by the person addressed. ENVELOPES to match are equally obvious stock. It is a good plan to stock large-sized manila envelopes for sending off large documents, reports, etc. ; these should be had in a variety of sizes, and some of them have clasps instead of gummed flaps, which make them very useful for temporary filing purposes. Gummed postal WRAPPERS should also be stocked in a fairly large size, and LABELS for sending off parcels, with the name of the library boldly printed on them, will be found very useful.

374. Writing Materials.—INKS are manufactured in such a variety of kinds and colours that choice is difficult. A good black ink should be procured, and also a bright red

colour, as a matter of course, but other coloured inks are useful for a variety of purposes. Copying ink is not necessary even where press letter-copying is employed, as ordinary blue-black ink, if not blotted but allowed to dry naturally, will make perfectly good press copies. Care should be taken not to dry the tissue-paper leaves of the letter book completely when making copies. INK-WELLS should be got in the modern reservoir form, with constant level dipping place. Ink kept in such receptacles never gets thick or dirty, and the pen is never overcharged or underfed. These ink-wells with rubber tops can be obtained for about one shilling each, but for staff and committee use a better variety should be ordered as the rubber degenerates quickly under the chemical action of the ink. Ink-wells should preferably be associated with *pen-racks* rather than with pen trays. A rack sorts the pens and pencils out automatically in a visible order, while a tray wastes a large amount of time annually, owing to the groping and examining and fruitless fumbblings necessitated before the right pen or pencil is found among its fellows. One pen one place, is a good motto for any librarian. Of course the use of FOUNTAIN PENS saves time and trouble and every librarian ought to have one as a part of ordinary equipment.

PENCILS are supplied for both public and staff use. A hard pencil lasts much longer than a soft one, it does not require pointing so often, and writing done by its means does not blur or "set off," an advantage not to be despised. Red, blue, and other coloured crayon pencils should be kept for checking purposes. Ordinary pen-holders and hard and soft pen-points, as well as pencils are provided for the use of readers, although a certain amount of loss occurs, as pens and pencils quite naturally disappear. It is, however, a convenience to provide pens, especially in reference libraries which have reading-tables provided with sunk ink-wells (but precautions to save books from ink-stains are essential).

Blotting paper, foolscap paper ruled faint, scribbling pads, and common white paper in sheets about 15 inches \times 9 inches for mounting slips, should be provided among the writing materials of a library.

375. Library Stationery Cabinet.—It is needless to set out in more detail the various desk accessories and miscellaneous stationery required in a library, and an enumeration of the stationery equipment which ought to be had for every library will suffice, although several of the things named, such as the

stationery case and the nest of drawers are superseded by the use of modern office desks designed to accommodate all forms of stationery, indexes and the miscellanea of office work. The wise librarian will watch all the experiments in office stationery, record-keeping, and general mechanisation that are always being made, eliminating things that are not essential to his work, and improving those that are whenever he can. The list, then, is a check on things found useful which, however, may at any time be superseded or improved.

STATIONERY CABINET

Paper clips.	Scissors.
Stationery case. For holding a supply of envelopes, note-paper etc. (large sizes).	Paste in bottles.
Numbering machine (five figures).	Rubber bands, assorted.
Rubber dating stamps, with loose type and with band-changing apparatus.	Rubber erasers.
Rubber printing outfit.	Gummed labels, assorted sizes.
Nest of drawers, twelve in cabinet.	Sealing wax.
Cash-box.	Twine of various thicknesses.
Paper fasteners, corner clips, wire clips and brass clips.	Ruled quadrille or squared paper (for planning).
Red tape, several spools (for documents only).	Tracing paper or linen.
Pins.	Case of mathematical instruments.
Hand-rest for writing.	Paper knives.
Tape measure or good two-foot rule.	Bone folders.
Waste-paper basket.	Leather book-carrying straps.
Dispatch basket (wicker), for holding documents.	Reading and magnifying glasses.
Letter scales, weighing to eight pounds.	Key rings and labels.
	Writing pads or tablets.
	Manuscript books of various sizes.
	8vo, 4to, folio, for odd record purposes.
	etc. etc.

376. The typewriter and its accessories are to be taken for granted in all libraries; and in connexion therewith its own special stationery, typewriting carbon, and stencilling papers, inks, etc. Most libraries of even medium size now employ a skilled stenographer who acts as secretary to the chief librarian, and manages the correspondence filing, the duplicating work, copies catalogue cards, etc. The larger libraries have several typists, and the modern cataloguing and order staffs do much of their work with the typewriter. The best typewriter is the cheapest machine in the long run, and it should be equipped

with carding and tabulating apparatus. Special "carding" typewriters—the Elliott is an example—are available and should be studied. Those which have more than one fount of type, as roman and italic, large and condensed types, have much to recommend them. Where much cutting of stencils for multiplying copies of lists or other material is done, the best results are attained by keeping a special machine exclusively for this work; ordinary use blunts the cutting faces of the type. A duplicating machine is an invaluable accessory. For small libraries the flat stencil-duplicating machine, such as the Gestetner, will suffice, and probably the best copies of smaller work, card forms, etc., are obtained by this means. But for circulars, book-lists, programmes and other matters of which

Date.	Description.	Price.			Vendor.	Location.
		£	s.	d.		

FIG. 143.—Inventory Book (Section 377).

many copies are required a cyclostyle—there are several makes—is desirable, and the electrically-driven machine saves its cost in labour very quickly in libraries where thousands of copies are required. By its means topical reading lists and the many circulars which a live library desires to issue almost every week can be prepared and circulated widely with the utmost dispatch. Such a machine is one of the best investments a library can make. Larger libraries employ such simple printing machines as the Gammeter, but they occupy considerable time in type-setting. A cleanly and rapid machine for short runs (*i.e.*, copies up to a hundred) is the Ormig duplicator,¹ which is a sort of off-set printer easy to work.

377. Records.—An inventory should be kept of all supplies ordered, with dates and quantities, and a very good plan is to use the cards described below. These could be ruled in a series of columns to show dates, quantities and prices, and kept in a box which would serve the double purpose of inventory and

¹ Manufactured by Block & Anderson.

FIG. 145.—Back of Inventory Slip (Section 377).

This inventory does not prevent supplies from running out suddenly, and thereby producing undesirable misunderstandings. There are many ways of effecting this check, all more or less satisfactory, but none, perhaps, is quite so certain as an actual *material* check upon the running-out of supplies. In addition to the inventory it is necessary to establish "emergency-supply" cupboards, safely locked up, in which to place a small stock of everything which is liable to run out. Attached to this emergency deposit should be a luggage label, or other conspicuous tag, bearing the words "Foolscap, ruled faint, order No. 69, Stock exhausted. . . ." The blank space is for the date when the emergency supply is transferred to the ordinary stock. In course of time the accessible stock is used up, and the person who removes the last sheet, or the one who next goes, discovers the shortage, and is forced to ask the key-keeper of the emergency cupboards for the reserved stock. This is produced, and the label is dated and handed to the person responsible for ordering a fresh supply.

378. All general library keys may be assembled on a special key-board. This should consist of a large board fitted with the necessary number of hooks, one for each key or group of keys, and a proper descriptive label and number should be pasted under each hook. The keys should be numbered and labelled to correspond, with ivory labels attached by rings to every key. In addition an alphabetical list should be fixed to the door of the key-board, so as to facilitate finding.

In some libraries the departmental heads and assistants are provided with a master-key to all internal doors which concern them; but keys which give access to the building as a whole should be limited to the chief librarian, the deputy librarian and the chief caretaker. A large building requires many keys, and a card-index entering the name of each key and the person who holds it, or its location, is a useful method of checking the safety of keys. When keys are removed from the building, they should be insured with one of the key insurance or registry offices.

Out of this we may appropriately mention that a routine concerned with the care of every library building and with the due performance of its work should be devised and maintained. At precise hours the library departments should be opened and closed, and before a building is left all windows and doors should be examined and closed if necessary, furnaces or stoves examined, and lights extinguished in a definite order, and by a

person definitely responsible who is not allowed, except by the permission of his superior officer, to delegate it to anyone else. The hour of duty set for any member of staff means that he should be ready for work at that hour and not merely be in the building. The staff should know how to use simple fire-appliances, and there should be a regular drill, so that in the event of fire every one knows how to behave and what records, books or other objects should be saved first.

There are several minor matters of routine or arrangement not dealt with in other places. Clean dusters in plenty should be available throughout a library, and the staff should be required to use them on every possible occasion ; certainly a book should never be handed to a reader in a dusty condition, as not only may the reader be offended, but he must inevitably transfer the dust from the outside to the inside of the book in handling it.

It is a good plan, whenever possible, to take very dusty books out to the open air, and beat them smartly together, two at a time. This drives the dust out more effectually than anything else, but they ought not to be allowed to get very dusty. Vacuum cleaners are essential to-day for the systematic dusting of a library, and they should be in regular use ; but a powerful variety is necessary, as the smaller vacuum cleaners remove the top layer of dust as a rule, and leave a solid substratum. Wood block and linoleum covered floors when treated with wax polish do not require to be scrubbed, and with the help of the excellent electric polishers available, the surface remains smooth and cleaning is reduced to a minimum. There are various floor preparations which are said to be effectively sanitary and to keep down dust, and some of them do this so literally that they seem simply to hold dirt in suspension, and not only produce discoloration in the course of time, but a black greasy surface which will ruin any book that falls accidentally, leaves open, upon it. Where these are used periodical scrubblings, and even scrapings in some cases, should be arranged to restore the original colour of the flooring.

CHAPTER XXII

BOOKBINDING AND REPAIRING

379. General.—One of the demands upon the income of a library which surprises the inexperienced is the cost of binding. In a new library a large sum must be allowed for this inevitable work ; for the modern book is so made that it rarely lasts a year in active use without requiring attention ; and that is certainly so with fiction. It will be found that the second year finds these costs at their highest and the third only a little less. After that comes the average year when, as our figures in Sections 64–66 show, the cost of binding absorbs approximately from 6 to 7 per cent. of the library income. The binding required for books in public libraries differs from ordinary commercial bookbinding or case-making in that the books are bound individually with reference to the use to be made of them ; and from artistic bookbinding, in that decoration, desirable as it is, must be subsidiary to wearing quality. The first requirement here as in every library operation is suitability of the article to its purpose ; the binding must be strong in all cases but have special strength where it is subject, as many lending library books are, to much handling. The foundation of bookbinding strength lies in the sewing. When good sewing is achieved the material of the cover may depend upon the paper, the weight of the book and the amount of wear it is expected to encounter, as is shown below in Section 386. But, the necessary qualities being obtained, beauty in form and colour should be required. The repellent uniform brown or black half-leather bindings of the past with their ugly utilitarian lettering are no longer tolerable in a day of many-coloured cloths, buckrams and leathers. The most beautiful things in a library should be its books !

380. For public library work only good binders experienced in this kind of bookbinding should be employed. In some places the work turned out by local binders is about as bad as it can well be, and is just as likely to lead to the rapid destruction of books as to their preservation. Cheapness does not in

this matter necessarily mean economy, nor is good workmanship often an accompaniment of low prices. It may be said generally that library binding is one of the items of maintenance which no library can *afford* to have done cheaply and badly. It may be much better to send work to a recognized bookbinder at a distance, and even to pay carriage both ways, than to depend upon the local bookseller or stationer who only knows about the casing of magazines. A good binder will bind a book in a manner which will enable the boards to live as long as the leaves, while poor workmanship will shorten its existence.

381. The question of binding books from the sheets, or rebinding in library style books issued in publishers' cases before putting them in circulation, has been much debated, though it is really not a formidable or difficult matter. As it is difficult to foretell that a book is going to be much used, it is probably a mistake to have it re-bound, or specially bound from the sheets, until this important point has been settled. Time alone can do that, and there seems little to be gained in binding new books specially at the outset. Books in publishers' cloth bindings, when printed on paper of fair quality, will often circulate from twenty to forty times before they require to be rebound, and then when they are strongly rebound in leather or good cloth, the binding will outlast the inside. Claims have been advanced with regard to the durability of various styles of binding, but it is impossible to ignore the fact that the paper of the book and not the covers of the binding may form the weak point.

The Great War rendered this paper problem an acute one. For a few years before 1914 librarians had induced a few publishers to produce some classes of books on a superior paper, and in a reinforced binding—that is, one according to the Society of Arts and Library Association recommendations—but the war conditions stopped all this and prevented the importation of paper and paper-materials. The most appalling rubbish was made to serve the purpose of book-paper, with disastrous results for almost all books published from 1915–19 and for some years after. Nor have book-papers of equal quality to those used before the War been re-introduced generally, but there has been definite improvement in the last few years and there are books, of which Cape's edition of T. E. Lawrence's *Seven Pillars of Wisdom* is an example, which would do credit to any time of English book-production.

Dirt is also as potent a factor as rough usage in shortening the life of a book, and no book's existence can be prolonged

beyond a certain term of years when dirt and inferior paper are such important elements in the matter. The durability of new books re-bound in special materials has possibly been exaggerated, and librarians and committees may, on the reasons given, prefer to adopt the ordinary method of allowing use to determine the books which require re-binding. But it should not be overlooked that when books are bound in special library binding they are serviceable without interruption for so long as they survive. Many libraries are sorely discommoded by the labour involved in the preparing of books for the binder, and in the checking required on their return; and books are often in the binder's hands when they are needed. Experiments should, therefore, also be tried with special re-binding and other plans in order to ascertain what is best; and a good general rule will probably emerge—no book should be bound so well that the cover is in a good condition long after the inside has been worn beyond redemption.

382. It would be a valuable concession if publishers would issue some copies of every novel by well-known authors, printed on specially tough paper, and bound according to the specification given in Section 391. This would meet every need which exists for specially bound copies of popular books, and give the much more valuable advantage of editions printed on paper which is not mere rubbish.

383. Home Binding.—The question of establishing a book-binding plant, for the purpose of conducting binding on the library premises, is one which affects only the large libraries of the country; but large towns with a number of branch libraries may find it both economical and advantageous to establish binderies, if not for extensive operations in the binding of books, at least for their repair and re-casing. Home binderies more or less extensive have been established in several towns, and the experience gained in these places seems to vary considerably.

Their advantages are obvious, apart from that of the convenience of having the work done on the library premises; the librarian can select the best materials and can supervise the work at every stage. Librarians who have established such a department are convinced not only of its convenience but also of its economy. When it is remembered that much other work than the actual binding and re-casing of books, such as illustration-mounting, ruling, magazine cover-making, etc., may be carried out in the home bindery, there is much to be said for it; but until the experiment has been carried much

further home binding is not advocated save in the larger libraries. A joint-stock or co-operative bindery could possibly be worked with success by the London Metropolitan Borough Libraries; in isolated provincial towns the plan is not so feasible.

384. Repairing departments stand upon quite another footing, and here there is safe ground for experiment with every prospect of success. Small repairing plants have been in operation in many places for some time with good results. Women workers are usually employed, who repair and re-case books, stitch pamphlets in covers, and even bind less important books which are not likely to be greatly used. Under a trade rule lettering and numbering cannot be done by women binders. A repairing plant costs less than £100. Materials of course run into a certain sum per annum, according to the nature and amount of work done.

385. Finishing, which includes lettering and numbering, can, however, sometimes be done by members of the library staff, although instruction is sometimes difficult to obtain owing to trade rules and the regulations of most polytechnic schools, which though supported by public funds, deny instruction to any save those actually engaged in particular trades. Perhaps the day will come when library schools will include this subject when dealing with bookbinding, typography and all allied practical arts. A complete finishing plant, including sets of numbers and alphabets, can be purchased at a sum which even small libraries can afford. The satisfaction of accomplishing on the premises the work of class lettering and numbering, which requires both care and neatness, is great. At any rate, inquiry should be made by librarians into the possibilities of establishing a finishing department, especially in cases where a systematic classification is used.¹

386. Materials.—For public purposes book-covering materials should be of the most durable sorts, and it is not wise to employ many different varieties either of cloths or leathers. Ordinary binders' cloth is nearly as satisfactory as anything else for preserving its colour, lettering and defying the pernicious effects of varying atmospheres and extremes of temperature. It will not stand much handling, however, and is very liable to wear out at the corners and joints, but it is the best material for collections of pamphlets, sets of publications, and other matter

¹ See "Specification for the fittings of a small bindery," by F. J. Williamson in *Leather for Libraries*, 1905.

which is not constantly handled. Smooth varieties are preferable to rough or patterned kinds, as being less liable to harbour dust. Apart from ordinary binders' cloth, the best known varieties are linen cloths, buckrams and Pegamoid and Rexine cloths. Pegamoid and Rexine cloths are treated in a special way with some preparation of celluloid to render them impervious to dirt and moisture, and for novels of the less important kind, they will outlast the leaves. Leather, which is peculiarly susceptible to the sulphuric acid which is present in some volume in the air of towns, should not be placed upon little-used books, and many libraries which formerly used it for long sets have discarded it in favour of legal buckram, or such a material as Winterbottom's washable cloth. A certain amount of handling is necessary for the preservation of most leathers, as the animal grease from the hands is a preservative, and they deteriorate if this is not forthcoming.

387. The principal leathers used for public library bindings are pig-skin, persian and levant moroccos, and roan. Calf, russia and other fancy leathers are not used, as they turn brittle under the influence of heated and dry air, and crumble to pieces. They are, moreover, costly and otherwise unsuitable. The leathers recommended should be used according to the books which they have to cover, and the following list will give an idea of the best classes for which to use each kind :

Levant morocco, or real morocco, made from goat-skin. This material should be used for very valuable books which require a handsome and dignified binding. It is very durable, but expensive for ordinary work. A cheaper reliable form is niger, which is tough, durable, and suitable for general use.

Persian morocco, made from sheep-skin, is not so dear or so good as levant morocco, but is a durable and satisfactory leather if a good quality is procured. It should be used for popular books in the non-fictional classes of the lending department. Heavy books can be bound in this leather, but pig-skin is better. The more it is handled the better it wears and keeps its condition.

Roan is a kind of inferior sheep-skin, with a different grain and surface from Persian morocco, and is a cheap leather for certain classes of books, such as the less popular works of travel, science, theology, fiction, etc. It is unsuitable for heavy books, and not to be recommended for any kind of book.

Pig-skin is the strongest leather of all, and also the most durable for much-used heavy books; but librarians should make certain that real pig-skin is supplied. Its price is rather more than that of good Persian morocco. All reference works, such as dictionaries, atlases, directories, and other volumes which are being constantly handled, may well be bound in this.

All leathers specified for bookbinding should be of the acid-free description recommended by the Society of Arts Committee (1898–1900) and the Sound Leather Committee of the Library Association. Sumach-tanned leathers are now to be had with a special guarantee from the makers. Experiments in the tanning, dyeing and methods of preserving book-leathers are still being made by the British Leather Manufacturers' Research Association, and the time is not far away when it will be possible to require binders to use a protected leather likely to resist ordinary atmosphere contaminations.

Other binding materials, such as vellum, parchment, canvas and patent leathers of various kinds, are not often required in ordinary libraries but are sometimes used to produce a character or period effect which is quite justified. This however is a matter for special decision and advice from experts and need not be considered here. Preservatives for use on leathers exist, and some have been successful, but others have been found to be hurtful rather than helpful. Leather bindings which get dry and worn will improve if treated with ordinary vaseline, which should be rubbed well into the texture of the leather with the fingers, and when it has soaked in, should be wiped with a soft cloth. Covers of paper or cloth are sometimes used to protect the bindings. This has given rise to the practice of issuing such paper covers loaded with advertisements which produce some revenue to the library and even more to the advertising agents. They are useful to protect books in bad weather, of course. If they are used, the librarian may well remember that a public library is one of the most valuable advertising fields in a town and these covers should not merely be "provided free"; they should be paid for handsomely by the contractors. Revenue from such sources may by some be thought to counterbalance the disadvantage that the covers disguise the identity of books, are untidy and otherwise unpleasant and some people cannot read a volume so covered.

388. Class Colours.—A certain advantage is gained by

binding each class of books in some appropriate colour. Thus, Science may be light brown or fawn colour ; Fine Arts, orange ; Social Science, light green, and so on to any degree, but if this is done there must be a distinct understanding as to what constitutes a particular colour, as there are many reds, greens, etc., and it is desirable at least that sets, *i.e.*, all the volumes of a work, should be uniform. Otherwise, uniformity means rigidity and dullness and should be avoided. Many variations of colours, and even blendings of them, will occur to the reader, as colours for particular authors, striking contrasts of main classes, divisions and sub-division of subjects. Modern binders have introduced what they call " brighter bindings," with much gold tooling, and some reproduce, in durable materials of course, exact copies of publishers' bindings. Every firm of bookbinders provides a series of specimen materials in which stuff and colour have index numbers and consistent colour work is easily obtained.

389. Lettering and Numbering.—When lettering and numbering have to be done apart from the re-binding, they can be executed by the staff after a little practice, as pointed out in Section 385. The object of lettering is to facilitate the finding of books, and for this reason it should be clear and bold. It is also possible by means of a little variation to obtain a certain amount of class-guiding in the system of lettering, and it should be made an invariable principle in every public library to adopt a certain order of particulars on the backs of books, and stick to the order. Too often this important matter is left to the fitful fancy of the binder's finisher, with the result that very frequently the author's name appears in all the panels in rotation. The series of suggestions given in Fig. 146 is offered as a basis on which any librarian can build a system of his own. The letterings are arranged to provide for titles, authors, volume numbers, class numbers, and dates of publication when necessary, and to show : 1, volume numbers ; 2, dating of a serial ; 3, an important editor of a classic ; 4, a special feature not conveyed by the title—" short stories " ; 5, an " omnibus " book under a general title ; 6, a sequel ; 7, contents of one volume of a several-volumed set ; 8, an elucidatory sub-title ; 9, subject not revealed by title ; 10, real and best known names ; 11, date covered by travels, etc. ; 12, subject of a novel ; 13, two authors and covering dates ; 14, an imitation, sometimes desirable, of the original binder's lettering ; and 15, lettering for music and other thin volumes. Class letters and numbers

MANUAL OF BOTANY	CONNOISSEUR	ESSAYS	PHILLPOTTS E.	ONIONS O.	DUMAS	WORKS 7
GREEN J. R.	59-60	BACON	IT HAPPENED LIKE THAT	WHOM GOD HATH SUNDERED	LA DAME DE MONSOREAU	SHAKESPEARE
Vol. 1	JAN.-AUG. 1921	WHATELY Ed.	SHORT STORIES	IN A COORDANCE WITH THE EVIDENCE DEBIT ACCOUNT STORY OF LOUISE	CHICOT THE JESTER SEQUEL TO LA REINE MARGOT	HENRY V HENRY VIII TITUS ANDRONICUS ROMEO & JULIET
580 GRE	705 CON	834 BAG	PHI	ONI	DUM	822 SHA

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

FIG. 146 (1).—Specimens of Class Lettering and Numbering (Section 380).

occupy one definite place on each book, which is not subject to variations in height when appearing on books of different sizes. The markings here figured for the backs of books are arranged so that titles occupy the leading panel in all classes and thus correspond with the great majority of the books as issued by publishers.

All these particulars are not always necessary, and some librarians deliberately omit class figures and arranging letters, but the examples afford suggestions that can be adapted to individual requirements where they are used. As a general practice it is laid down that the class letter and number should occupy the same relative position whatever the size of the volume, namely, about two inches from the foot, and that all be boldly lettered with the first three letters of the author's surname, or numbers from an author table, while *Individual Biography* only should be similarly marked with the surname letters of the *subject* of the biography, but not the author, save in the case of autobiographies, letters, etc. If accession numbers are added they can be placed out of the way in the top half-panel, while shelf colours for open access can be added at the points suggested in Section 296.

390. The principal alternative method is that mentioned in the chapter on classification (Section 294), where the book is lettered in accordance with what is thought to be the natural process in arranging and finding books. Thus a book is arranged on the shelves first by its class, second by its author, third by its title, except in the case of individual biography, where the name of the biographee takes the panel which in other books is devoted to the author, and that of the author takes the panel below the title. Fig. 147 will indicate sufficiently the appearance of such a lettering scheme, and will show how it subordinates ordinary usage to library purposes, especially in the third example.

No. 3 brings Dowden's book into the group of Shakespearean books, and shows the spelling of the name preferred in the catalogue for the heading; and No. 4 shows the method of indicating both the real name of the author, which is the catalogue heading and arranging name, and also the author's pseudonym.

391. Specification.—Sometimes a library authority insists that all binding must be done by tender. It must be recognized, however, that binding is a very varied matter, some books requiring special treatment, and that binders are equally varied in their ability to do special work. The best results can only

be obtained if the librarian has power to send certain classes of work to the firms best qualified to deal with them. So far as general binding is concerned, the present-day combination of master-binders has levelled up prices until every binder quotes practically the same figures; so there does not seem much to be gained by tenders, except that legal formality which is so

485 ROB	B GLA	822 SHA	F CRO
ROBSON	GLADSTONE (W. E.)	SHAKSPERE	CROSS
CONSTRUCTIVE GREEK EXERCISES	LIFE AND LETTERS	SHAKESPEARE AS A DRAMATIC ARTIST	SILAS MARNER
	MORLEY	DOWDEN (E.)	ELIOT (G.)
	Vol. I		
1	2	3	4

FIG. 147.—Specimens of Class Lettering and Numbering (Section 390).

much approved by public authorities. If it is used, book-binding specification should include every point which has any bearing on the cost, finish and workmanship of the books. The specification of the Society of Arts and that drafted by Mr. Douglas Cockerell are very good, and many of their points could be included in a specification for library binding. As requirements differ in every library, it is impossible to attempt the drafting of a model specification which will meet every

case, but the details set out in the following draft may prove useful and suggestive :

DRAFT BOOKBINDING SPECIFICATION.

To the Public Libraries Committee

of..... Date.....

Gentlemen,

.....undertake to bind books for thePublic Libraries Committee in the manner specified below, at the prices stated in the annexed schedule, for one year from..... to.....

All books to be well beaten or rolled, and care taken to avoid set-off of ink in new books.

To be sewn one-sheet-on, on strong tapes ; the first and last sheets to be enclosed at back in paper strips. All sections broken at the back to be enclosed in strips, and neatly overcast, not less than four stitches to the inch, before being sewn to the tapes. Four tapes to be allowed for crown 8vos ; other sizes in proportion. The tapes to be firmly secured between the back and front boards, which must be carefully split to receive them.

In leather-bound books, the backs to be made close and flexible, without bands, save in cases to be separately notified, but with blind fillets in imitation of bands. Leathers as specified in schedule, with smooth cloth sides to match colour of leathers.

In cloth- or pegamoid-bound books, the backs to be made open, with suitable linings. Edges to be very carefully cut, sprinkled and burnished, but only when the margins are not too small ; otherwise to be left with proof and top edge only smoothed.

End-papers to be of stout, coloured, marbled or printed paper, with at least one white leaf before and after the printed matter. (Or as an alternative—the special library end-papers to be used in all books re-bound, etc.)

Linen or other strong cloth joints in all books.

Lettered in gold with author's name, title, class numbers, initials, etc., as per separate diagram showing arrangements of lettering for each class. The colours of leathers and cloths for each class to be as specified in the diagram. The order of lettering and colours to be maintained unless altered by the instructions, and class letters and numbers to be placed at a uniform height of two inches from the foot of each book, irrespective of size.

Include all wrappers, cancelled matter, and advertisement pages of certain magazines at the end of volumes, in their published order.

All materials used to be of the best quality, and the work done carefully and promptly. Deficiencies and irregularities in books, if any, to be reported to the librarian.

SCHEDULE OF PRICES

Sizes.	Half Levant Morocco.	Half Persian Morocco.	Half Pig-skin.	Half Niger.	Best Linen.	Best Ordinary Cloth.
Fcap. 8vo ($6\frac{1}{4}'' \times 4''$) . .						
Crown 8vo ($7'' \times 4\frac{1}{2}''$) . .						
Post 8vo ($8'' \times 5''$) . . .						
Demy 8vo ($9'' \times 6''$) . . .						
Medium 8vo ($9\frac{1}{2}'' \times 6''$) . .						
Royal 8vo ($10'' \times 6\frac{1}{2}''$) . .						
Imperial 8vo ($11'' \times 7\frac{1}{2}''$) . .						
Quarto ($11'' \times 8\frac{1}{2}''$) . . .						
Folio ($13'' \times 8''$)						

Prices of other sizes to be in proportion.

Extras :

Per inch for folios over thirteen inches.

For lettering large initials in classes 800 and 920 . . . per hundred.

For mending torn or broken leaves.

For guarding plates in linen or jaconet, per dozen.

For mounting and dissecting maps, etc., on fine linen, per sq. foot.

. . . For extra thickness, if books more than half the width
of boards. . . .

Each lot of binding to be finished and returned within
from the date of order.

Should there be any extras chargeable beyond those provided for in
this specification, they must be reported to the librarian before the work
is proceeded with.

Samples of the manner in which propose to bind books in
accordance with this specification are sent herewith.

Signature of firm.

Some libraries use vellum instead of leather corners, while
others have the corners of the leaves neatly rounded like a pack
of modern playing cards, and some have the boards rounded to
correspond. It is a good plan to have the corners of the leaves
slightly rounded, but added corners of vellum are disliked by
binders as difficult to work and often result in the roughing-up
of the cloth which fits down to their edges, and there is no great
benefit arising from the rounding of the corners of the covers.

Other points will doubtless arise in the practice of every library, and these must be provided for as thought best. Metal corner-pieces let in between the split boards are not recommended.

392. Records and Checks.—When a lot of books for binding is sent out it must be accompanied by a set of instruc-

Date when sent.	Lettering.	Class and No.	Instruction.	Date Returned.

FIG. 148.—Binding Sheet (Section 392).

Progressive No.	Date of Dispatch.	Lettering.	Class.	Material.	Date Returned.
1					
2					
3					
4					

FIG. 149.—Binding Order Book (Section 392).

tions to the binder, and a copy of this must be retained at the library as a record and to check the books when returned. The most usual plan is to send out a binding sheet, ruled as in

NEWTOWN PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

Central. **No. 2987**

Style..... **A** **Colour** **Red I**.....

Price **2/5** **Binder** **Ch.**.....

**PERSONAL
AND
BUSINESS EFFICIENCY**

HENDERSON

658

Other Instructions

Oversew

FIG. 150.—Binding Order Slip (Section 392).

Fig. 148, on which are entered the particulars of the books requiring binding. These particulars are also entered in a binding book, ruled exactly the same as the sheets, and in the last column of this the books are marked off as returned. This result, and an actual facsimile copy, may be obtained by using

a duplicating book, the sheet sent to the binder being so perforated as to be easily removable. The double copying involved in making out two separate sheets is thus avoided. It is usual to make the binder's messenger check over and sign for every lot of books at the end of the page. Another method, which possesses the advantage of enabling the binder to distribute the work in his workshop, and makes every book carry its own instruction, is as follows: Procure a large book of perforated slips with a counterpart page, unperforated, behind every page of slips, in the style of a manifold order book. Have these pages ruled as in Fig. 149, and progressively numbered.

An alternative method is to use separate order slips, one for each book, ruled to show the panels on its back, and in each panel the appropriate particulars are entered as in the example (Fig. 150). The purport of the slips may be entered briefly in a binding book ruled to show title, class and date returned, with a column for a consecutive number, which of course would be written on the corresponding slip. When an order for binding is being made up each book is entered on a numbered slip, pen-carbon or other copying paper being placed between the slips and the counter-part below. Dates can be stamped to save time. The slips are then detached and placed in the books to which they refer. An ordinary order form is then made out in some such terms as:

Mr.....will please bind as per contract and separate instructions thebooks sent herewith, comprising numbers..... to.....

The binder's messenger can sign the book on the last counter-foil, in a form like this:

Received on.....from the.....Public Library.....volumes for binding.

Or a rubber stamp with these words and blanks can be used. The object of the progressive number is to afford a ready means of identifying instructions and ascertaining in an easy manner the number of books bound in any one year. These numbers may also be written in ink at the end of the letterpress of each book, as a means of ascertaining how often any book has been re-bound. The price, if carried into the column reserved for the progressive number in the counterpart, will also be a useful record to keep. By simply referring to the progressive numbers it is possible to ascertain the price paid for successive re-bindings and to keep a check on the whole of the work.

393. Repairs should not be entered in this book. It is better to use an ordinary order sheet and copy it in the press order book. It can be headed :

Mr..... will please re-case the following books :

or

Mr..... will please repair the following books, as per instructions added to each :

394. Miscellaneous.—Tape or ribbon BOOK-MARKS are sometimes placed in public library books, but a much more obvious and useful plan is to print a special book-mark with a folding-over tab, which can be placed in *all* books which are issued, and not confined simply to those which are re-bound. A good form of marker can have one or two pointed rules for the due care and preservation of books printed on a conspicuous part.

Some firms give away book-marks of various kinds, and many publishers insert advertising cards which serve as markers. Large towns that approve the practice can invite an advertising agent to supply large numbers of book-marks, and to pay well for the privilege, the agent being allowed most of the space on them for advertisements from which he draws the revenue.

395. Special END-PAPERS have been introduced in a few libraries to be placed in re-bound books. They serve the purpose of an ownership mark more effectually than a book-plate, but, of course, they can only be used in the books which happen to require re-binding. Croydon once used quite an elaborate design, giving compartments showing the arms, monogram and a view of the town hall. End-papers of this kind are a luxury which few public libraries can afford.

396. An effective way of placing an indelible mark of ownership upon a public library book is to impress a blind stamp upon the outside front board. This can be done by means of a screw-press and a special die, and need not cost more than £10. Any member of the staff can impress such a stamp, and it is better than confining this mark of ownership simply to books which have been re-bound. A circular stamp is best, as it will always appear straight.

397.

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DIVISION VIII

RULES AND REGULATIONS

CHAPTER XXIII

RULES AND REGULATIONS

398. General.—The Libraries Acts empowers library authorities to make rules and regulations for the working of libraries. There are two main purposes in view: to give citizens the most advantageous use of the library and its contents, and to prescribe only such conditions as shall prevent abuse and protect buildings, books and furniture. The tendency of modern practice is to reduce rules to these essentials so that barriers between the readers and the freest use of books are broken down. Indeed, it may be better to lose a few books yearly than to protect them by troublesome regulations from the few dishonest people who may live in the community.

399. Hours.—The number of hours during which municipal libraries remain open to the public varies according to local conditions, staff and funds. In small places, with scanty populations and little libraries with only one attendant, a few hours open at night on certain weekdays, according to requirements, may serve. In towns of a fair size, of say from 10,000 to 30,000 people, the reading rooms may be open all day uninterruptedly from 10 to 9 or even 10, but the lending library may be open only from about 10 to 2 and from 5 to 9. In large towns of over 40,000 inhabitants, the libraries may remain open all day from early morning till late at night—say from 9 a.m. till 9 or 10 p.m. for newsrooms; 9 a.m. till 9 or 10 p.m. for reference libraries; 10 a.m. till 9 p.m. for lending libraries; and 4 till 7 p.m. for children's departments. Formerly the universal hour for closing reading rooms and reference libraries was 10 and for lending libraries 9, but, since the war, earlier closing of business houses and shops has made earlier closing of libraries practicable and in some towns 9 is the latest hour to which they remain open and lending libraries close at any time between

7 and 9. There are usually no interruptions to these services, either in the way of half- or whole-day closing to suit the staff, or any irregularity in hours ; the principle being held that the library should be open at any time in a working-day. In large towns there is no necessary connexion between the public hours and the staff, and in an important matter of this kind the policy of employing extra assistance, in order to keep the library open all day and every day without overworking the staff, should not be questioned. It may be argued that if one town of a certain size can keep its public libraries open all day and every day (save Sundays and holidays, of course) every similar town and all larger ones can easily do likewise, but this is not invariably the case. A well-constructed time-sheet will often remove difficulties which may seem to arise from under-staffing or other conditions.

At the same time, to dogmatize upon the question of hours is unwise, as local circumstances condition the question. The recent movements in the industrial and commercial worlds, as has been suggested, have reduced working hours, and most people are now at liberty before 7 p.m., a fact which does away with the *necessity*, if not the convenience, of keeping libraries open to very late hours. Again, a suburban library, with a population which returns from a neighbouring city in the evenings, has need to be open later than one, say, in the city itself. On the other hand if only adequate staffs could be employed a case could possibly be made for keeping the library open *always*, but this does not seem to be an immediate prospect. The matter is one of public convenience, and if it is remembered that to have the library fully used is the ideal, the hours will be chosen well. There are always readers who prefer to use the library in the last hour of its day, whatever that hour may be ; if the closing hour is nine, they will arrive at 8.45 ; if eight, at 7.45 and so on ; it is a curious, not uncommon human trait, which may be borne in mind when hours are being arranged.

400. Age Limits.—Formerly persons under eighteen or sixteen were forbidden the use of public libraries ; now such high limits are very uncommon, though fourteen is still frequently seen in rules. Local conditions receive due consideration in this matter, though it is difficult to think of any circumstance which calls for any distinction being made between children of twelve and those of fourteen years of age. There are hundreds of bright, intelligent lads and girls of twelve who

are the equals in knowledge and ability of their fellows of thirteen and fourteen years of age ; in fact, children do not fit, intellectually, into age-compartments ; their capacities are surprisingly individual. The entire abolition of age limits in lending libraries is sometimes advocated, subject to the reservation that the librarian should have discretionary power to refuse to issue books to any child unable to read and write. There is, however, a certain amount of trouble and inconvenience to adults resulting from the admitting of young children in open access adult libraries without separate junior accommodation ; moreover where such access is given, parents should be advised that they are responsible for what their children read, as a public library cannot be selected by the standard of the boy or girl. The modern novelist has made this an acute question in some places. Separate children's libraries are the solution of the difficulty, and, when these can be provided, the age limit downwards can be abolished so far as they are concerned, although it is sometimes, for no very sensible reason, fixed at nine, while the limit for the adult library can be raised to fourteen. Adequate provision should be made for interchanging, and all necessary facilities provided for enabling intelligent young people under the limit to procure suitable more advanced books if desired ; and, on the other side of the account, for allowing adults to revive their youth by permitting their access to the works of Ballantyne, Henty and other authors.

401. There is more to be said for keeping age-limits high in reference libraries and reading rooms, especially when there are separate children's rooms. But, generally speaking, there is no strong reason for excluding well-conducted boys or girls from a popular reading room, whatever their ages may be, provided they do not come during school hours, or do not otherwise make the library a place in which to hide from some duty. In some libraries, with age limits of twelve, fourteen or over, it is the practice to turn away younger children from news and reading rooms in cases where they are accompanied by their parents or elders. This is an abuse of a rule which was only intended to protect readers from the noisy incursions of irresponsible youngsters, who are wont to stray into public places out of sheer devilment, or accident, or excess of curiosity. The age limit for a reference library designed for students, with open access to the shelves, may be fixed at fourteen or sixteen, with discretionary power to the librarian to grant permits to

any studious youngster under that age. Where access to public reading rooms and children's departments is easy, there seems no good reason for throwing open the reference library to all, unless under the safeguards suggested.

402. The Borrowing Right.—There are points in connexion with the borrowing rights of various classes of citizens which it is desirable to notice, especially as they have much bearing on a library's popularity and good management. In almost every town the borrowing right is extended without charge, as the law prescribes, to householders, their families, and to lodgers and other non-householding residents. It may also be extended without charge to employees in the town who live elsewhere, and to non-resident scholars and students at schools or similar institutions in the town, and this is usually done. No argument is needed for this to-day, as all these are useful citizens who contribute to the town's income. The extension of the right to persons living outside and not connected with the town is dealt with later.

403. Teachers and others engaged in educational work, as well as serious students, should be dealt with generously and should, where the book stock allows, be lent as many books as they need at a time. In one town, at least, the occasional American practice, of allowing every reader to take as many books at a time as he desires, has been adopted; without ill effects, because few people care to be loaded with volumes that they will not have time to read, and relatively fewer do comparative reading on any large scale. From six to twelve works are frequently required by a teacher in preparing a subject, or a student engaged in comparative reading; and he should be allowed to have them, the most liberal interpretation possible being given to this privilege. Obviously no reader should be permitted to make his needs an excuse for borrowing batches of current and popular works to the detriment of other readers, but it is better to risk even this than to fail him in what may be an important matter. Such readers reach farther than the average individual.

404. Formerly before a reader, otherwise qualified, was allowed to borrow books he was required to obtain the guarantee of one or two ratepayers who affirmed his suitability and undertook financial responsibility for books borrowed. In most cases this has been reduced to one guarantor, but in some the guarantee has been dispensed with, the simple recommendation of a ratepayer only being required, and in others

only a declaration that he will observe the rules is required of any person who can prove his address to be in the district. Where a guarantee is enforced the form should state a limit of liability—the amount being usually £2. In some towns a deposit, usually of ten shillings, is accepted in lieu of a guarantee. Opinions differ on this matter and we do not attempt to pronounce upon it, but there is no doubt that to obtain guarantors is a vexatious impediment to many would-be readers.

There are other antiquated and needless restrictions in connexion with the borrowing right which need not be specified at length, but are grouped together here as examples of bad rules for which there is little justification.

1. The illegal charge of 1d. or 2d. for tickets or voucher forms, still levied in some places in defiance of the Public Libraries Act, 1892, Section 11, Sub-section (3); and various judicial decisions.
2. Requiring more than three days' notice before issuing a borrower's ticket.
3. Limiting the time for reading books to less than fourteen days.
4. Refusing to renew books by post-card, letter, telephone, or messenger, and requiring that the actual books shall be brought back to be redated.
5. The imposition of fines of vexatious amount for overdue books. (This question is further considered in Section 405.)
6. Refusing to exchange books on the same day as that on which they are issued. (As the books which are brought back for exchange are usually those which the borrowers have read previously, the rule causes irritation out of all proportion to any inconvenience its abolition would cause to the library.)
7. Allowing only one volume of a work on one ticket at a time to borrowers.
8. Restricting the number of books which a reference reader may have at one time.

405. Fines and Penalties.—Fines are imposed in most libraries for the undue detention of books by readers. If they are levied with discretion and in connexion with a lending time of not less than a fortnight, there is much to be said for their imposition. In some towns they contribute quite effectively to the library revenue, and, although James Duff Brown held that they should not be imposed, there is every justification for them if they are primarily regarded as a penalty for entrenching upon the rights of other readers, and not as a means of raising revenue. Cases are known to every librarian where a

popular book has been passed by its original borrower round a whole circle of readers, or where it has been put aside and forgotten. As rules are made in the interest of the whole body of readers, and as every reader has promised to keep them, infringement should carry a penalty; and if that penalty goes to buy more books, every reader is benefited by fines. The alternative is not to charge them and to chide readers for their unsocial conduct when the detained books are returned; a practice which has little to commend it, and however skilfully done may provoke trouble. Of course, fines should be reasonable, and a charge of one penny per week or part of a week after the fortnight allowed is reasonable, with an increasing charge after the first week or fortnight in excess. The librarian should have discretion to remit fines in cases where illness or unavoidable cause of detention is shown.

406. Holiday and Sunday Opening.—Whether libraries are to be opened or not on public holidays and Sundays is largely a matter for local option. In some places libraries have been experimentally opened on PUBLIC HOLIDAYS on the plea that many persons are unable to use them at any other time, and the result has been anything but encouraging. In other places, like seaside and holiday resorts, they have been open on such holidays, with decided advantage to trippers seeking shelter from inclement weather. Generally speaking, all libraries should be *closed* on public holidays, on the grounds that a general holiday should be generally observed as such. If any exception to this were made it would be to open only on wet and stormy public holidays, but never on Good Friday, Christmas, and in the case of Scotland, New Year's Day. The public holidays in Britain are too few and far between to effect any radical influence upon libraries or readers.

407. SUNDAYS present rather different conditions; there are more of them, and they come at regular intervals. Experience and several official enquiries seem to prove that readers in general do not want libraries on Sundays; and in a number of towns where opening on that day has been tried it has been abandoned owing to the small attendances. Neighbourhoods, however, may differ in their needs and only local experiment can prove conclusively the need or otherwise. Committees will not readily incur the expense of such opening at the behest of the societies which exist to create as well as to meet the alleged needs of the people on Sunday; because few people are now unable to visit libraries on weekdays. Where Sunday

opening exists, or has existed, it has never been applied to lending or children's departments, and rarely to the reference library; usually the newsroom—the least valuable department—has been open certain hours of the day (3 to 9); and, except in seaside places where the library may serve as a shelter for visitors—which is not an obvious library purpose—the hours are curtailed during the lighter months.

Should the Sunday opening question become a burning one in any town, arrangements might be made to open the reading room and reference library, provided at least 500 citizens take out tickets as an earnest of their intention to use the library. It is doubtful if in any town Sunday opening has been limited to students and other inquirers, but it would form a reasonable manner of settling a difficult question should opinion be sharply divided.

The opening of the library on holidays and Sundays would of course involve special arrangements for staff and for heating, lighting and cleaning; staff is usually paid at double the ordinary rates or has double time off in compensation; although some authorities make Sunday duty to be paid at ordinary rates a condition of the engagement of their staff.

408. Enforcement of Rules: Bye-laws.—Authorities have power to make rules and regulations, but they are not legally valid except as the general law allows and they must be supported by byelaws, although in quite a number of cases the magistrates have upheld them with regard to the recovery of books lost and guaranteed and in connexion with damage to library property. The Act of 1901, however, provides for the approval of bye-laws by the Board of Education. A model set is obtainable from the Board and embodies the recommendations of the Library Association made in 1930. A complete set of these bye-laws, with the necessary endorsements and (in clause 17) repeal appears as follows:

Made under Section 3 of the Public Libraries Act, 1901, by the Mayor, Aldermen and Burgesses of the — Borough of —, acting by the Council (hereinafter referred to as the Library Authority) relating to all the libraries for the time being under their control.

1. A person shall not engage in audible conversation in any reading room in the library, after having been requested not to do so by an officer or servant of the Library Authority.

2. A person shall not wilfully obstruct any officer or servant of the Library Authority in the execution of his duty or wilfully disturb, interrupt or annoy any other person in the proper use of the library.

3. A person shall not cause or allow any dog or other animal belonging to him or under his control to enter or remain in the library, or bring into any part of the library a bicycle or other wheeled vehicle or conveyance.

4. A person other than an officer or servant of the Library Authority shall not enter or remain in any part of the library not set apart for the use of the public.

5. A person shall not smoke, strike a light or spit in any part of the library.

6. A person shall not carelessly or negligently soil, tear, cut, deface, damage, injure, or destroy any book, newspaper, magazine, pamphlet, map, chart, plan, engraving, etching, print or other document forming part of the contents of the library.

7. A person other than an officer or servant of the Library Authority shall not affix or post any bill, placard or notice to or upon any part of the library.

8. A person who is offensively unclean in person or in dress, or who is suffering from an offensive disease, shall not enter or use the library.

9. A person shall not lie on the benches, chairs, tables or floor of the library.

10. A person shall not partake of refreshment in the library.

11. A person shall not give a false name or address for the purpose of entering any part of the library or obtaining any privilege therefrom.

12. A person shall not make a tracing of any portion of a book without the permission of the librarian.

13. A person other than an officer or servant of the Library Authority shall not, unless duly authorised, take any book from any lending or home-reading department of the library.

14. A person other than an officer or servant of the Library Authority shall not take any book from the reference or reading room of the library.

15. Every person who shall offend against any of the foregoing byelaws shall be liable for every such offence to a penalty of Five Pounds.

Provided nevertheless that the Court of Summary Jurisdiction before whom any proceedings may be taken in respect of any such offence may, if the Court think fit, adjudge the payment of any sum less than the full amount of the penalty imposed by this bye-law.

16. Every person who shall commit any offence against the Libraries Offences Act, 1898, or against any of the foregoing byelaws may be excluded or removed from the library by any officer or servant of the Library Authority in any one of the several cases hereinafter specified, that is to say :

(1) Where the offence is committed within the view of such officer or servant and the name and residence of the person committing the offence are unknown to and cannot readily be ascertained by such officer or servant.

(2) Where the offence is committed within the view of such officer or servant and from the nature of such offence or from any other fact of which such officer or servant may have knowledge or of which he may be

credibly informed there may be reasonable ground for belief that the continuance in the library of the person committing the offence may result in another offence against the Act or against the byelaws or that the exclusion or removal of such person from the library is otherwise necessary as a security for the proper use and regulation thereof.

17. From and after the date of the confirmation of these byelaws, the byelaws relating to libraries which were made by the Council on the twenty-seventh day of April, 1926, and were confirmed by the Board of Education on the fifteenth day of June, 1926, shall be repealed.

THE CORPORATE SEAL of the
 ——— Borough of ——— was
 affixed hereto by Order of the
 Council this Ninth day of March,
 1931.

(S.)

T. ARTHUR LEWIS, }
 A. J. CAMDEN FIELD, } *Members of the Council.*

J. M. NEWNHAM, *Town Clerk.*

Confirmed by the Board of Education
 this 27th day of April, 1931.

(S.)

W. RITCHIE.

409.—In the Scotch Act very full provisions are made for the confirmation and enforcement of bye-laws. Clause 22 of the Act of 1887 reads: "It shall be lawful for the committee to make bye-laws for regulating all or any matters and things whatsoever connected with the control, management, protection and use of any property, articles or things under their control for the purposes of this Act, and to impose such penalties for breaches of such bye-laws, not exceeding £5 for each offence, as may be considered expedient; and from time to time, as they shall think fit, to repeal, vary or re-enact any such bye-laws, provided always that such bye-laws and alterations thereof shall not be repugnant to the law of Scotland, and before being acted on shall be signed by a quorum of the committee, and, except in so far as they relate solely to the officers or servants of the committee, such bye-laws shall be approved of by the magistrates and council, or the board, as the case may be, and shall be approved of and confirmed by the sheriff of the county in which the burgh or parish, or the greater part of the area thereof, is situated." Provision is also made for advertising and giving due notice of intention to adopt the bye-laws.

410. Draft Rules and Regulations.—These draft rules are based upon an examination of those of the principal libraries in Britain and the United States, with modifications to harmonize them with certain leading principles advocated throughout this book. No two places are exactly alike in all their circumstances, so that no library is likely to adopt these rules exactly as they stand. But they contain suggestions which may be found useful in drawing up a series of rules and enable most points to be met. Some libraries have a large number of rules, amounting in some cases to fifty or sixty items, but some of these are quite unnecessary. Draft rules were drawn up by the late Local Government Board and have historic interest.¹ The fewer and simpler the rules the more likely are the people to read and to observe them.

LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARY

RULES AND REGULATIONS

GENERAL

1. The Liberton Public Library is a society established for purposes of literature and science exclusively. The librarian shall have the general charge of the library, and shall be responsible for the safe keeping of the books and for all the property belonging thereto.
2. The library is supported in part by a rate levied in accordance with the Public Libraries Act and in part by annual voluntary contributions of moneys and gift of books and periodicals. The library committee shall not make any dividend, gift, division, or bonus in money unto or between any of the members.
3. Admission is free to all parts of the library during the hours of opening, but no person shall be admitted who is disorderly, uncleanly or in a state of intoxication. Smoking, betting and loud conversation or other objectionable practices are also forbidden in the rooms or passages of the library.
4. The librarian shall have power to suspend the use of the ticket of any borrower, and refuse books or deny the use of the reading rooms to any reader who shall neglect to comply with any of these rules and regulations, such reader having the right of appeal to the library committee, who shall also decide all other disputes between readers and the library officials.
5. Readers desirous of proposing books for addition to the library may do so by entering, on slips (*or* in a book) kept for the purpose, the titles and particulars of publication of such books, which will then be submitted to the committee at their first meeting thereafter. All suggestions on management to be written on slips or sent by letter to the committee.

¹ See Library Association Record, 1903, p. 28.

6. Any person who unlawfully or maliciously destroys or damages any book, map, print, manuscript or other article belonging to the libraries shall be liable to prosecution for misdemeanour under the provisions of 24 & 25 Vict., c. 97, *An Act to consolidate and amend the Statute Law of England and Ireland relating to malicious injuries to property*, 1861. The provisions of the statute entitled 61 & 62 Vict., c. 53, *An Act to provide for the punishment of Offences in Libraries*, 1898, shall also apply.

REFERENCE DEPARTMENT

7. The library and reading room shall remain open on week-days from — a.m. till — p.m., but shall be closed on Christmas Day (New Year's Day), all public holidays, and such other days as the committee may from time to time appoint.
8. Every person on entering the reference library shall sign his or her name, with the correct address, in a book kept for the purpose. Any one giving a false name or address shall be liable to prosecution, and shall not afterwards be allowed to use the library.
9. Every person before leaving the room shall return the book or books consulted into the hands of the librarian or his assistants [or, alternatively, close it/them and leave it/them upon the table], and must not replace books taken from the open shelves.
10. Any work in the lending department, if not in use, excepting Fiction, may be had on application in the reference library for perusal in the reading room, but on no account must such books be taken from the room.
11. Illustrations of all kinds may be copied, but not traced, except by permission of the librarian. Extracts from books may be copied in pencil. The use of ink is permitted only at certain tables which are reserved for the purpose. Certain works are issued only after a written application to the librarian.

LENDING DEPARTMENT

12. The lending library is open daily for the issue and receipt of books every week-day from — a.m. till — p.m., but shall be closed on Sundays, Good Friday, Christmas Day (New Year's Day), all public holidays and such days as the committee may from time to time appoint.
13. Books shall be borrowed for home reading only by persons rated, resident or employed, or attending an educational establishment in the Borough of....., or qualified by Rule 18.
14. All persons whose names appear on the current Roll of Electors of the Borough, or in recognized local directories as residents, may borrow books on their own responsibility, after filling up an application for a borrower's ticket, on a form provided for the purpose.
15. Other residents, non-resident employees and persons attending educational establishments in the borough, over years of age,

- may borrow books, but must first obtain a guarantee (or recommendation) from a duly qualified person, as defined in Rule 14, and must sign an application for a borrower's ticket, on forms to be provided by the librarian. But no such guarantor shall be allowed to assume responsibility for more than three other persons, unless by special arrangement with the committee, and in no single case shall his or her liability exceed £2 per person guaranteed.
16. Any person otherwise qualified who is unable or unwilling to obtain the signature of a qualified resident as a guarantee, may borrow books on leaving a deposit of 10s. with the librarian. The guarantee of the recognized head officials of Government departments, Friendly Societies and similar organizations may be accepted at the discretion of the Committee in lieu of an ordinary guarantee.
 17. The Application and Guarantee Form, duly signed, must be delivered to the librarian, and if, on examination, it is found correct, the borrower's ticket will be issued three days (*or at once*) after (excluding Sundays), but will only be delivered to the borrower in person. This ticket will be available at the central library or any branch or branches.
 18. In accordance with Section 11 of the Public Libraries Act, 1892, the committee will lend books to persons, other than those duly qualified under Rules 13-16, who pay an annual subscription of 7s. 6d.; but such borrowers must conform, in every respect, to all the rules of the library, and shall have the same privileges as those possessed by the other borrowers, and no other privileges.
 19. The committee shall issue additional tickets to readers, available for all classes of literature save Fiction, and for Music Scores. Any duly enrolled borrower may have one or both of these extra tickets on filling up an application form as for an ordinary ticket. Students pursuing special subjects, teachers, the clergy and ministers and similar persons, may apply to the chief librarian for extra tickets to the number of which shall be issued at the discretion of the librarian.
 20. All tickets and vouchers must be renewed [state their period], each ticket and voucher being reckoned available for from date of issue.¹
 21. The borrower must return each volume lent within fifteen days, including days of issue and return, and shall be liable to a fine of 1d. per week or portion of a week for each volume lent, if not returned within that period, but the issue of a book may be renewed for a further period of fifteen days, dating from the day of intimation, on notice being given to the librarian either personally, or by telephone, or in writing, and no further renewal will be allowed if the book is required by another reader. Books which are much in demand may, however, be refused such renewal at the discretion of the librarian.

¹ In some libraries the practice has arisen of making tickets permanent, as long as the holder resides in the district, without renewal annually; others have a duration of two, three, five or more years. In place of renewal, a check over takes place annually, to ensure accuracy of addresses, etc.; where this is so, Rule 20 is unnecessary.

22. Each volume on return shall be delivered to the librarian or his assistant, and if on examination it be found to have sustained any damage or injury, the person to whom it was lent, or his or her guarantor, shall be required to pay the amount of damage done or to procure a new copy or series of equal value, and, in the latter case, the person supplying the new copy shall be entitled to the damaged copy or series on depositing the new one.
23. Borrowers who are unable to obtain a particular book, except fiction published within the preceding ten years, and desire that it shall be retained for them on its return, must give it title, number, etc., to the assistant, and pay [usually 1d. or 2d.] to cover cost of an intimation that it is available for issue; but no book will be kept longer than the time mentioned in the notice sent.
24. Borrowers are required to keep the books clean. They are not to turn down or stain the leaves, nor to make pencil or other marks upon them. They must take the earliest opportunity of reporting any damage or injury done to the books they receive, otherwise they will be held responsible for the value of the same.
25. If infectious disease occurs in any house containing books belonging to the library, such books are not to be returned to the library, but must be handed over to the Medical Officer of Health or any sanitary officer acting on his behalf. Until such infected house is declared free of disease by the Medical Officer of Health, no books will be issued from the libraries to any person or persons residing therein. In similar circumstances non-resident ratepayers or employees must return their books to the Medical Officer, and cease to use the libraries till their residences are certified free from infection.
26. Only actual borrowers who are enrolled on the register of the library shall have the right of direct access to the book-shelves, but their representatives may be admitted at the discretion of the librarian or his assistants. To prevent disappointment, these representatives should come provided with a list of several book-titles and numbers.
27. Any change in the residence of borrowers or their guarantors, or notice of withdrawal of guarantee, must be intimated to the librarian within one week. Such withdrawal of guarantee must be in writing, and shall become effective when all books which may be in the hands of the person guaranteed have been returned.
28. Borrowers leaving the district or ceasing to use the library are required to return their tickets to the librarian in order to have them cancelled; otherwise they and their guarantors will be held responsible for any books taken out in their names.
29. No person under [—] years of age shall be eligible to borrow books or make use of the adult library, except by the librarian's permission.

GENERAL READING AND MAGAZINE ROOMS

30. The general reading room shall remain open on week-days from — a.m. till — p.m., and the magazine room from — a.m. till — p.m. (and on

Sundays, from October to May inclusive, from — to — p.m.). Both rooms shall be closed on Good Friday, Christmas Day (New Year's Day), all public holidays, and such other days as the committee may from time to time appoint.

31. No persons under — years of age, unless accompanied by their parents or elders capable of controlling them, shall be allowed to use these rooms, except by permission of the librarian or his assistant.
32. Any persons who use these rooms for purposes of betting, or who in any way cause obstruction or disorder in these or any other rooms or passages of the libraries, are liable to be proceeded against under the provisions of 61 & 62 Vict., c. 53, *An Act to Provide for the Punishment of Offences in Libraries*, 1898.
33. Readers in possession of newspapers or other periodicals, must be prepared to resign them to any other reader who may ask to peruse them, — minutes after the request has been made through one of the library staff.

CHILDREN'S ROOM

34. The children's reading room and library shall remain open from — till — p.m. daily on Monday to Friday inclusive, and from — a.m. till — p.m. on Saturdays.
35. The admission is free to every boy or girl under — years of age residing in the Borough of..... who is able to write and read; but they must obtain a guarantee (or recommendation) from their parents or school teacher as to good behaviour and safe return of all books.
36. Application for tickets admitting to the reading room must be made at the library.

There are certain admonitory rules which may be displayed in frames in placard form, if they are thought to be necessary, such as: **SILENCE IS REQUESTED; NO DOGS ADMITTED; CYCLISTS ARE REQUESTED TO KEEP THEIR MACHINES OUTSIDE THE BUILDING; PLEASE WIPE YOUR BOOTS; NO ADMISSION THIS WAY; NO SMOKING ALLOWED;** and so on. The fewer these are the better; some libraries are plastered with penal and prohibitory notices which cannot be attractive to readers. A framed copy of the bye-laws, hung where it can be seen, and intelligent supervision, make these notices superfluous. Readers usually understand what sort of conduct is becoming in a library.

411. Notes on Rules.—1 and 2. These rules are included for the purpose of qualifying for the certificate of exemption from income tax and local rates, as described in Sections 73-6.

15. In some libraries the guarantee of responsible heads of large government and other departments is accepted for all

the employees, and secretaries of associations and school teachers have also been accepted. In the first case the association has become responsible for all its eligible members, and signs through its secretary. In the second case the teacher assumes responsibility for all his eligible pupils. It should be understood that a teacher's guarantee does not involve the teacher in financial responsibility, but is an indication of his opinion that the applicant may benefit by the use of the library, and usually includes the assumption that he will use his moral influence to secure the due care and return of books.

16. DEPOSITORS should be treated as ordinary borrowers, and their tickets and numbering should go through the same routine. The money thus received is usually treated as an ordinary receipt which is paid over to the local authority's finance officer, and when called for is returned by his cheque.

18. Under the powers conferred by the 1892 Act, many public libraries now permit persons residing outside the district who are not otherwise qualified to become borrowers on payment of an annual SUBSCRIPTION, ranging from 5s. to 10s. The money received from this source is paid into the subscriptions account as is the case with deposits, and a proper receipt is given to the subscriber, showing how long the subscription lasts.

21. The RENEWAL OF BOOKS is generally allowed without question, if in the interval they have not been required by other readers. In other cases, such renewals must, of course, be refused, but a reader will sometimes detain the books and in that event all that can be done is to refuse to recognize the request and to charge fines from the date on which the books were originally due for return. Here again the fiction question arises, and there are reasonable doubts if the right of renewal should be allowed in the case of recent popular novels. With classic fiction and other books, students should be allowed to renew within reasonable limits, and by any reasonable means—postcard, telephone, message or other—provided that readers give the necessary particulars. A form of renewal slip is used at some libraries which may be useful; copies are taken away by any borrower who thinks he may require them, and if he desires to renew a book, he simply fills up a slip and returns it by hand or post to the library. The assistant then picks out the charge from the charging system, inserts the renewal slip in the pocket, and re-issues. The renewals may be sorted in sequence behind a special guide, so that when a book is returned

which has not been re-dated, it is easy to find it; or a "dummy" book card may be inserted in order under the original date of issue bearing a reference to the date of renewal—this somewhat lengthier method is perhaps the more effective one. Renewals should count as re-issues, and a record should be made of the issue of all books which are thus renewed.

<i>Book No.</i>
<i>Issued</i>
<i>Renewed</i>
<i>Fine</i>
This Ticket should be returned when renewing the Book.
LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARY.

FIG. 151.—Renewal Slip (Section 411 (21)).

23. The practice of RESERVING BOOKS is dealt with in Section 456. The chief points connected with the matter are whether all books should be reserved, and how many orders for the same popular book should be booked at once. It is the usual, but not the universal practice to exclude current popular fiction from the operation of the rule, although classic fiction usually can be reserved, which may be distinguished by adding the classic symbol (some arbitrary sign) to the class-mark of all books which have been published more than ten years. Such works are not necessarily classic, of course, but all that is

contemplated is to prevent the holding-up on reservation lists of the latest works. As regards the second point, librarians will have to exercise a nice discretion as to how many readers they will place on the rota at one time, as it is quite conceivable that to reserve any popular work more than a dozen times ahead is simply to cut it off from general circulation for an indefinite period. In the case of very popular books, the possibility of buying a special copy for reservation should be contemplated.

25. INFECTIOUS DISEASES NOTIFICATION.—Authorities differ greatly as to the power of books to carry and disseminate disease. American and English bacteriologists, after exhaustive researches and tests, declare that dirty books cannot convey infection, whilst German and French scientists are not so sure. The latest tests and theories are negative. Infection is conveyed in a wet state from the patient to another person, and it is affirmed that when contagious matter has dried it is innocuous. It is, therefore, clear that the conditions under which books may carry disease rarely, if ever, occur. As library assistants are continually turning over, handling and inhaling the dust, etc., from lending library books without observed ill results, it may be assumed that the danger of infection, if it exists at all, is greatly exaggerated. It is necessary, however, for library authorities to take steps to assure the people that everything is done to prevent disease being communicated through the medium of library books. The Public Health Acts are quite clear on the point that persons suffering from infectious diseases, or in charge of other persons so suffering, are liable to penalties for lending any article; and this would cover the case of a library which re-issued a book which came from an infected house. The practice should therefore be for the local sanitary authority to seize all library books found on disease-infected premises, and either simply to destroy them after due notification to the library authority, or to disinfect them. A further notification should be sent to the library when the house has been disinfected and declared free from disease, as in the meantime the librarian has stopped the issue of books to persons in the disease-stricken house from the date of the first intimation. There are various forms used for notifying when and where disease breaks out, and what books are destroyed or detained for disinfection, and also for declaring the infected house free from disease. As regards the disinfection of books, opinion is

CROYDON PUBLIC LIBRARIES

*A Note from the Children's
Librarian*

*I send you your Tickets and hope to see
you again soon.*

FIG. 152.—Advice to (Child) Readers after Quarantine (Section 411 (25)).

CROYDON PUBLIC LIBRARIES



*The Chief Librarian has pleasure in
sending your tickets and hopes you
will soon make use of them again.*

FIG. 153.—Advice to (Adult) Readers after Quarantine (Section 411 (25)).

uncertain if it can be properly done without destroying the bindings, and it is best to take the extreme course in view of the public fears. As regards the cost of replacing such destroyed books, the local sanitary authority can be called upon to do this under the provisions of the Public Health Acts, 1901, but unless the annual loss is very great, it seems hardly advisable to raise the point. In small places or towns with very limited book funds, the sanitary authority should certainly be asked to replace all books which are destroyed. It is a wise plan to keep a separate record of books which are destroyed in the interest of the public health. This need not note any further particulars than the dates, titles and numbers of books, and cost. A column can be reserved for remarks.

It is a useful courtesy to advise readers that they have been released from quarantine so far as the libraries are concerned. The notices shown (Figs. 152-53) for adults and children respectively, which should be enveloped, will serve.

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414. Infectious Diseases :

Do Books Carry Infection ? Lib. Journal, v. 49, p. 416, 1924.

Lathrope, G. Library Books and Contagion. Lib. Journal, v. 57, p. 805, 1932.

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[Little or nothing has been written on the matter of late in this country.]

415. Open Access :

See Brown's Manual of Library Economy, Ed. 1, 1903, pp. 445-68, for discussion of policy and list of articles on the subject.

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For articles, see Cannons, R, Loanwork ; T 1, Reference Department : Rules ; K 47, Sunday Opening, and under the same headings in Library Literature.

DIVISION IX

THE LENDING, OR HOME READING, DEPARTMENT

CHAPTER XXIV

THE REGISTRATION OF BORROWERS

416. General.—By a tradition now firmly implanted in the mind of the public, and nourished by journalists, the lending department is the most prominent feature of the public library. The average public criticism, favourable or otherwise, is almost invariably based upon lending library statistics. This is probably because the average person knows the library as a place from which he may “take out” books. In a treatise for librarians the inadequacy of this view need not be stressed, although, as in many matters connected with their calling, librarians are not unanimous as to the relative value of their departments, some exalting one or other at the expense of the rest. There are, however, clear principles which have a fairly general acceptance. The main one is that in libraries which are in fairly close proximity to much greater libraries, it is wise to place more emphasis on the lending than on the reference department. It would be an unjustifiable duplicating of expense for a library, for example, within a mile or two of the British Museum, to attempt the hopeless task of rivalling it in the provision of expensive works ; while on the other hand it would be justified abundantly in providing the finest possible lending library. Even here dogmatism is to be avoided, because the habits of populations in what appear to be exactly similar localities may differ greatly. Where, for example, a city working population living in a large suburb returns rarely or not at all to the city in the evenings, there may be a real demand for a reference library. Only experience, which bears in mind the general principles stated, can resolve which policy it is best to follow.

The smaller town library must necessarily be mainly a lending library ; it cannot afford to maintain more than a limited reference collection ; and that collection should in the main be of quick-reference books in their most recent editions. On account, then, of its prominence and the numerous opportunities for good work it affords, the lending library deserves the utmost care in its planning and administration, and the simplest and freest methods compatible with reasonable provision for the safety of the books are the best. All the considerations we have described as to the accession and weeding-out of books apply with particular force in this department ; and a study should be made of the various methods of issue described in the next chapter before one is chosen, as a wrong choice may inflict inconvenience upon readers and later involve expensive changes ; in fact, the converting of a lending library from one system to another is one of the most costly operations in which it can be involved.

The staffing of the department requires just as much consideration. It is usual to place boys or girls without much experience or training at the charging counters, and this is an economical method if there is always on duty, and visible to readers, a qualified assistant who can act in the capacity of guide. The public department is the point of contact with readers, and the library is judged by the quality of the service there. Counter work is in the main mechanical, requiring for its performance intelligence and accuracy indeed, but not the higher librarianship qualities ; but an ignorant " official " or otherwise unsatisfactory reception of readers may do great harm. Every assistant should have counter experience and should not be allowed to regard it as inferior work, since that attitude proves its holder to be unfit for general library work, but it is not good to keep adult assistants continually at it. If trained assistants are on hand near by, and it is insisted that all requests and complaints be dealt with only by these, the qualifications of the counter staff will not be a serious matter so long as they include courtesy and despatch.

417. Voucher Forms.—Vouchers on which people apply for enrolment as readers are now nearly always on cards of standard size. These are the basis of the necessary registration of borrowers which all libraries must perform. It is not needful to describe more than one form, because it is adopted, with variations to suit different localities, as the standard system of the country. The legal questions connected with the validity

of certain forms of guarantee are also beyond the scope of this section, because judicial rulings have been obtained on all kinds of forms, and the only point requiring consideration, that of the amount of the guarantor's liability, has already been covered (Section 404).

The form of voucher which can be used as a movable card (5 in. \times 3 in.) is preferable to a large slip, which requires binding

No..

LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

This voucher, properly filled in, entitles the reader to a GENERAL TICKET, and, if desired, a NON-FICTION TICKET, which are valid for two years from date of issue.

I, the undersigned, being a Burgess of the Borough of Liberton, hereby make application to the Public Libraries Committee for a Ticket, entitling me to Borrow Books from a Lending Library, and I hereby undertake to replace, or pay the value of any Book belonging to the Corporation of Liberton, which shall be lost or injured by me, also to pay all Fines, and all expenses of recovering same, in accordance with the Rules, by which I agree to be bound.

Name in full.....
If a Lady, state if Mrs. or Miss.

Residence

Date..... No. on Elector's Roll....

If the Applicant requires the second Ticket (on which only works that are not Fiction may be drawn), the following should be signed :

I desire to receive a Non-Fiction Ticket.....
Signature.

FIG. 154.—Voucher for a Ratepayer Applicant. Size of this and Figs. 156-159 is 5 \times 3 inches (Section 417).

in volumes, or other special means of preservation ; and the style of cards, first introduced into British libraries by L. Stanley Jast, Figs. 154-58, will be found satisfactory.

These voucher cards should be printed on a stout material, which may be of a different colour for each type of reader—burgess, non-burgess, student, etc.—and handed free to any person entitled to borrow books. When returned filled up, they are examined to ascertain if the applicant is duly qualified, and when this is done the card is filed, after it has been numbered from the number book, and the borrower's card made out.

The space in the top left-hand corner is to hold the borrower's name, boldly written in as a catch-word for alphabetical arrangement. The No.... space at the top right-hand corner is for the borrower's progressive number if one is used, which is not always necessary or even useful. The Date.... space at the bottom left-hand corner is the date of application, which also indicates the date of expiry two years later. The Elector's Roll.... space at the bottom right-hand corner is for the number on the current elector's roll. It is a useful thing to write against the name of the guarantor on this roll the numbers of any borrowers for whom he is responsible, in cases where a limit is put to the number whom one person may guarantee. There is generally marginal space for this purpose. Other means of identifying a burgess in addition to the electoral roll may be accepted, as shown in the note on the voucher in Fig. 156.

418. The following are satisfactory examples of vouchers for non-ratepayers and non-resident students and employees (see Figs. 155-57) :

No..

LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

This voucher, properly filled in, entitles the reader to a GENERAL TICKET, and, if desired, a NON-FICTION TICKET, which are valid for two years from date of issue.

I, the undersigned, residing in the Borough of Liberton, hereby apply to the Public Libraries Committee for a Ticket (or Tickets), entitling me to borrow books from a Lending Library, in accordance with the Rules, by which I agree to be bound.

Name in full.....
Ladies please state if Mrs. or Miss.

Residence

Occupation Age..... Date.....

If the Applicant requires the second Ticket (on which only works that are not Fiction may be drawn), the following should be signed :

I desire to receive a Non-Fiction Ticket.....

Signature. P.T.O.

FIG. 155.—Front of Voucher for Non-Ratepayer Applicant (Section 418).

I, the undersigned, being a Burgess of the Borough of Liberton, declare that I believe the Applicant named over to be a person to whom Books may be safely entrusted for perusal; and I hereby undertake to replace or pay the value of any Book belonging to the Corporation of Liberton, which shall be lost or injured by the said Borrower; as also to pay all Fines incurred under the Rules, and all expenses of recovering the same.

Name in full.....

Ladies please state if Mrs. or Miss.

Residence

Write legibly in ink.

Occupation Do not fold this Card.

The Guarantor's name must appear on the current Burgess Roll, failing which, the production of the last receipt for payment of Poor Rate, or a lease showing the occupancy of a whole premises, or a rent book showing the occupancy of a whole premises, will suffice. The guarantee last two years, unless previously withdrawn in writing by the Guarantor.

Ward..... No. on Burgess Roll.....

FIG. 156.—Back of Voucher for Non-Ratepayer Applicant (Section 418).

No..

LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

This voucher, properly filled in, entitles the reader to a GENERAL TICKET, and, if desired, a NON-FICTION TICKET, which are valid for two years from date of issue.

I, the undersigned, being a scholar/employee in the Borough of Liberton, hereby apply to the Public Libraries Committee for a Ticket (or Tickets), entitling me to borrow books from a Lending Library, in accordance with the Rules, by which I agree to be bound.

Name in full Age...

Ladies please state if Mrs. or Miss.

Residence.....

School or place

of Employment..... Date.....

If the Applicant requires the second Ticket (on which only works that are not Fiction may be drawn), the following should be signed :

I desire to receive a Non-Fiction Ticket.....

Signature.

FIG. 157.—Front of Voucher for Non-Resident Student or Employee; the back is the same as in Fig. 156.

The vouchers for non-ratepayer applicants should be dealt with in the same way as those for ratepayers, *viz.*, checked with registers and filed in the alphabetical order of surnames, after tickets have been made out and an entry made in the number book.

419. It will be seen that the vouchers illustrated permit any borrower who desires it to acquire a non-fiction or duplicate ticket in addition to a general ticket. The more general practice has been to require a separate voucher to be filled up (and guaranteed in the case of non-burgesses) for every such ticket. In this case the voucher requires no separate wording, but the word "Duplicate" or "Non-Fiction" stamped boldly across the ordinary voucher is sufficient to indicate the difference. But there seems no special advantage in making the applicant go through this double process. The same holds good with regard to vouchers for those who make a deposit in lieu of obtaining a written guarantee, or who subscribe in terms of Rule 18. The words DEPOSITOR OF . . . or SUBSCRIBER OF . . . and the date can be written or stamped on the back of the card. There is no reason, beyond avoiding a multiplicity of cards, why a library should not provide separate forms for every class of applicant,

Form of Application for Membership of Lending Libraries.

NEWTOWN PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

I,, being a
(Name in full—state if Mrs. or Miss.)
 Ratepayer †
 Resident
 Student
 Employee

in the Borough of Newtown, hereby apply for a Reader's Ticket or Tickets in the class or classes against which I have signed below. I have read the Rules of the Libraries and agree to be bound by them.

- *1. General Ticket (for any kind of book) *Signature*
 2. Non-Fiction Ticket *Signature*
 3. Music Ticket (for Musical Scores only) *Signature*

Home Address

Business Address or School

Age, if under 21 *Date*

† Cross out the words that do not apply.

* Sign for each kind of ticket required.

DO NOT FOLD THIS CARD.

[SEE OVER.]

Tickets are issued free, but if a ticket is lost 3d. is charged for a new one.

with differently coloured cards, etc., but it seems unnecessary, unless there are special local circumstances to be considered.

420. The tendency is towards as few vouchers as possible. The voucher (Fig. 158) is used for all kinds of readers

20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	PAT. NOS. 225069, 297992, C.C. 89098 C										31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49
19	18	17	16	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1											50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
NAME..... (SURNAME FIRST, BLOCK LETTERS PLEASE)										MR. MRS. MISS										NO.....																			
COULSDON & PURLEY PUBLIC LIBRARIES I, THE UNDERSIGNED, MAKE APPLICATION FOR TICKETS ENABLING ME TO BORROW BOOKS FROM THE COULSDON & PURLEY PUBLIC LIBRARIES, AND I AGREE TO CONFORM TO THE REGULATIONS MADE BY THE COUNCIL.																																							
SIGNATURE.....										ADDRESS.....										DATE.....																			
AGE (IF UNDER 21)..... (1) IF YOUR NAME DOES NOT APPEAR IN THE CURRENT REGISTER OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT ELECTORS FOR THE URBAN DISTRICT OF COULSDON & PURLEY, PLEASE OBTAIN THE SIGNATURE OF A RATEPAYER BELOW. I, THE UNDERSIGNED, BEING A RATEPAYER OF THE URBAN DISTRICT OF COULSDON & PURLEY, RECOMMEND THE ABOVE APPLICANT AS A FIT AND PROPER PERSON TO BORROW BOOKS.																																							
SIGNATURE.....										ADDRESS.....										DATE.....																			
PLEASE WRITE LEGIBLY AND IN INK.																																							

FIG. 159.—Punched Voucher Card—Copeland & Chatterton's "Paramount" System (Section 421).

except subscribing non-residents and children under 12, and for all kinds of tickets; the guarantee for non-ratepayers, given on the back of the voucher, is as shown in Fig. 156.

421. Punched vouchers can now be had which may be made to yield a variety of information. Fig. 159 represents a card

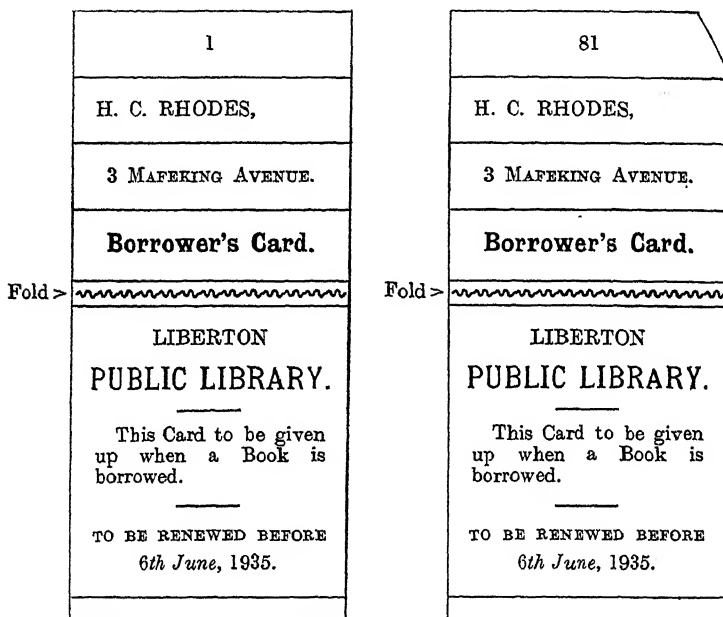
of Copeland Chatterson's Paramount system, which is a simplified version of the sort of card used in the remarkable Hollerith system employed in sorting census information. Each hole represents a piece of information, for example, 1-6 may be the various wards of the town, 7-15 age groups, 16-25 schools, or any variations or additions that may be thought useful. The hole is clipped away for each fact represented on the card. By the inserting of a long needle through the holes representing any piece of information the cards not concerned with it are lifted clear, making immediately available those which are. This places more information as to his readers at the disposal of the librarian in one simple form than any other voucher. Its use requires a certain amount of time and some carefulness.

422. Tickets.—Various forms of borrowers' tickets are used with indicators and card charging, but only the kinds most commonly used need be described. One form is shown below (Fig. 160) for libraries in which borrowers retain their tickets when they have no books on loan. They are made with cloth backs to fold across, and the one with the clipped corner is a good form to adopt for students' or extra tickets available for non-fictional works only. The variety shown is not ruled to hold a record of the numbers of books which are borrowed upon it, as this does not seem necessary. To keep such a record involves much work and to interpret it even more, although in some circumstances it might be very interesting to trace the history of the reading of particular people. As a check on lost books it may have some value, but that has no relation to the cost of keeping it.

This ticket can be used with any kind of issue method, and it is therefore noted here and not with other cards among the charging systems.

The plan which we have assumed to exist of issuing EXTRA STUDENTS' tickets available for non-fiction works only, in addition to an ordinary ticket available for all classes of literature, first became popular in Britain in 1893, and arose out of a suggestion made by Mr. J. Y. W. MacAlister at the Library Association Conference at Aberdeen. In America this is generally known as the "Two-Book System," and it became very widely adopted after 1894. Indeed, American libraries are most generous in their lending; many libraries lend as many as ten books at a time; and one or two adventurously invite borrowers to take at any one time "as many as they like." The advantage of this indiscriminate freedom is not quite

obvious, and, owing to their more limited stocks, it would be impossible in many British libraries. There are decided advantages in the plan of allowing borrowers to have two books at a time, and there is no doubt it greatly enhances the value of the public library to many people. As indicated by Rule 19, Section 410, special privileges are recommended to be extended to school teachers, the clergy and *bona fide* students who ought



Ordinary Ticket.
Blue-lined Cloth.

Extra Ticket.
Yellow-lined Cloth.

FIG. 160.—Borrowers' Tickets (Section 422).

to be allowed any number of books, within reason, required for their special and important work of education. In Croydon in each secondary school the head teacher appoints a *liaison* officer between school and library who represents the needs of the school to the librarian and passes on library information to the pupils; and amongst his duties is that of indicating that certain pupils will benefit by the use of extra books, which in this case are limited to four separate works at a time for each reader. There is no objection to allowing special privileges to all earnest students engaged in research, provided no injustice

is done to the general work of the library or to students similarly engaged. Certainly it is better to lend half a dozen or more books at a time than to have them lying idle. Of course, libraries with more readers than books, if there are any, will issue extra tickets with caution.

423. Registration.—Borrowers' tickets when numbered are arranged in a progressive series, and the same number should be given to the same borrower as long as he or she remains connected with the library. This prevents overlapping and the

No.	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947
1	H. C. Rhodes June 4	H. C. Rhodes June 6					
2	P. Kruger June 4	J. Burns July 10					
3							
4							
5							
6							
7							
8							
9							

FIG. 161.—Borrowers' Number Register (Section 423).

clumsy method of numbering continuously up to a certain limit and counting off the early numbers; a doubtful way of ascertaining the total number of actual borrowers at any given time. The ruling of a number register in book form is shown in Fig. 161.

In this each borrower is entered as he joins, receiving the first vacant number, which is also carried on to his voucher and ticket. The column is chosen which represents the year in which his ticket expires, and against the number is written the borrower's name, and under it the month and day when the ticket expires. The holder of a given ticket can be ascertained very rapidly by this method, and time-expired or dead ticket-holders can be counted off without trouble. It is necessary

to mark the entries in order to do this. An easy way to indicate an expired ticket is to mark the register with a tick (✓) as shown in Fig. 161 (No. 2). These expired numbers should be given to new borrowers, so as to keep the register filled up and complete, and at the end of a given period, when it is time to ascertain the number of "live" or actual ticket-holders, it is only necessary to count the blue ticks, and deduct their total from the last number of the series, in order to obtain the exact number of current borrowers. A number register book ruled as shown in Fig. 161 will last for many years. It is not necessary to print the progressive numbers or years, and it will facilitate counting operations if fifty numbers are allowed for every page. Holders of extra tickets may be numbered in a separate series in a special book, and juvenile ticket-holders can be treated in a similar fashion.

424. To prevent the possibility of a number of tickets being obtained by the same individuals, all tickets should be registered and made out at one library of a town, but, of course, issued from the library at which the application was made, and such tickets should be made interchangeable. A liberal, but not always possible, view might be that if readers did have more tickets than they had title for it would not matter much if they could use them, but a certain confusion might arise. A great advantage of central registration is that the work is done speedily and uniformly and that questions which arise later concerning the borrower's application, guarantor, etc., can be answered from one place readily. There is no advantage attached to separate branch registration. Incidentally, but of great importance is the fact that there is loss of good service when residents are confined to the service of a particular branch; they should be entitled to use any of the libraries.

425. When the borrowers' vouchers have been duly checked, numbered, and the tickets have been written out, they should be filed in alphabetical order of the borrowers' surnames in properly guided trays (or, better, card cabinets), supplied with all necessary angle blocks, etc., as in the case of charging and card-catalogue trays and cabinets. These form the alphabetical index to the borrowers, while the borrowers' number register supplies the numerical side. Thus any question regarding borrowers can be answered without delay. It is unnecessary to keep an alphabetical register of guarantors and if there is the limit to the numbers they may guarantee the marking of the elector's roll as already suggested is sufficient.

426. Lost Tickets.—Fig. 158 shows a statement on the side of a voucher to the effect that a charge of 3d. is made for the replacing of a lost ticket. This is a matter for local decision, but in the library where it is made so many tickets were lost that the charge was made in order to encourage readers to take

NEWTOWN PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Borrower's Lost Ticket Voucher

Name in full.....

Residence

Former Residence
(if recently changed)

Date.....

NOTE.—A new ticket will be issued 14 days after the date of this application. If the original ticket is found, it should be returned to the Lending Library to be cancelled.

Borrowers are reminded that they are liable for any books borrowed on lost tickets, even after this application has been made.

FIG. 162.—Lost Ticket Voucher (Section 426).

more care of them. It has succeeded, in that readers have found that many so-called lost tickets were merely mislaid! Readers who lose tickets are sometimes asked to fill in a Lost Ticket Voucher (Fig. 162). The delay of 14 days, which is rather long, allows time for the charging system to reveal whether the alleged lost ticket is being used by the loser or by some one else.

427.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- All general library text-books deal with the subject—*i.e.* Bostwick's American Public Library, Doubleday's Library Routine, Ra's Library Administration, Roebuck and Thorne's Primer of Library Practice, Dana's Library Primer, and Stewart's Open Access Libraries. Dana, J. C. (*Ed.*). The Work of the Registration Desk. *In* Mod. American Lib. Econ., 1908.
- Vitz, Carl. Circulation Work. A.L.A. Man. of Lib. Econ., xxi, 1927. Chicago.
- For articles, see Cannons, R 34, Registration of Borrowers, and under the same heading in Library Literature.

CHAPTER XXV

ISSUE METHODS

428. In modern library practice, methods of book-registration involving the use of ledgers or day-books have been abandoned because of their want of movability and adjustability; the entries when once made were fixed, either in a running sequence under a date of issue, a borrower's name, or a book's title. Questions which might be answered readily if entries were separate, could not be put to a record in volume form. Card methods have superseded them, which enable registration to be conducted in various ways for various purposes. There are many kinds of card charging, and many more methods of applying them. Movable entry systems are the most interesting, because they present greater possibilities to the ingenious mind, and are more scientific and logical.

429. There is hardly any limit to be put to the variety of ways in which cards can be used; and, without describing every system in detail, it will be interesting to select and describe typical plans from among the more practical varieties, as representative of each particular group. The fundamental idea of the more commonly used card systems of charging is that each book or volume shall be represented by a movable card, which can be stored in various ways when the book is on the shelf, and used to register or charge the book, when issued, to its borrower. An alternative card system, the Dickman, much used in America, is based on the borrower's card and not on a book card. This is described below in Section 437.

430. The following is a specimen ruling for a card used in a very simple system (Fig. 163):

The first and third columns may be used for the borrowers' numbers, and the second and fourth for dates of issue, as shown above, or all four columns may be used for borrowers' numbers. The backs of the cards may be ruled the same, without the heading. These cards are kept in a strict numerical order of progressive numbers in trays or drawers. When a book is

chosen by a borrower, the card representing it is withdrawn from its place, the borrower's number and date of issue entered, the date of issue stamped on the date label of the book, and the transaction is complete when the book-card is placed in a tray, or behind a special block bearing the date of issue. At the end of the day the cards are all sorted up in numerical order, as far as possible, the statistics made up from them, and they are then put away in the dated issue trays, or behind date blocks in drawers. When a book is returned, its date and number direct the assistant to the exact number of the book-card, which is withdrawn, and at leisure replaced in the main sequence. No other marking off is necessary, and the book is immediately

F 9432			
HOPE			
Prisoner of Zenda			
8276	Jul. 19	2641	Nov. 6

FIG. 163.—Book Issue-Card (Section 430).

available for issue. Overdues gradually declare themselves, as day after day passes, and the cards for books in circulation diminish in number as returns are made. This system is rarely used nowadays; it involves the writing of numbers and dates—always an impediment—and in cases of overdues, queries, etc., it necessitates reference to the borrowers' register, another waste of time, but it forms the basis of all the more elaborate scientific systems.

431. In the popular loose pocket system each book is represented by a manila card (4×2 inches, but sometimes much smaller) and sometimes ruled on both sides to take borrowers' numbers and dates of issues. The cards are stored numerically in trays and form a flexible "indicator" of all the books that are available. Every borrower is represented by a card of a similar kind, but one inch shorter (see Fig. 164). The borrower selects his book from the shelf, and presents it at the exit desk with his ticket; there the number which is written on the board

label is consulted, the appropriate book card is drawn from the tray, conjoined with the ticket in a loose pocket, and the date on which the book is to be returned is stamped on the date label. The "charge"—as the conjoined card and ticket are called (see Fig. 164)—is placed in a sorting tray and the issue is complete. At the close of the day the charges are arranged

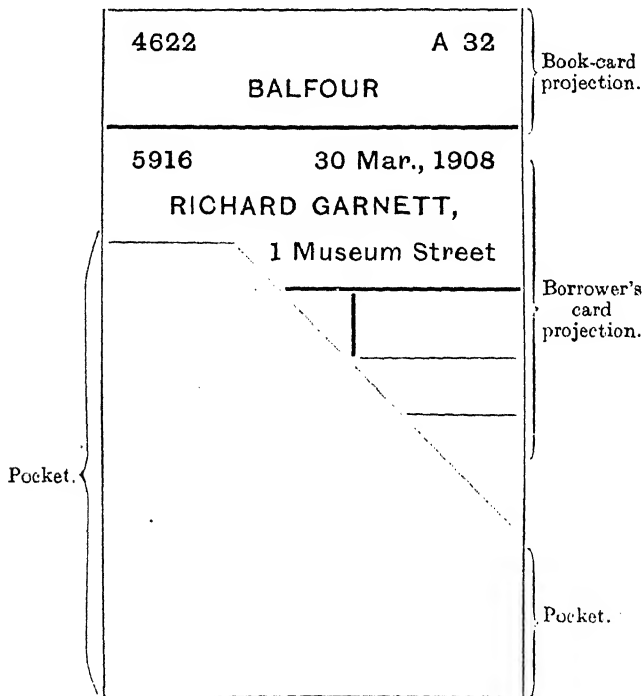


FIG. 164.—A Book Charge: Book and Borrower's Cards combined in Pocket (Section 431).

in issue trays behind a projecting guide bearing the date of return. It is a purely mechanical process which does not require any writing, although some libraries enter the readers' numbers on the book-cards or the book numbers on the readers' tickets afterwards, a work of much labour and small utility. Readers usually retain their tickets when they suspend their borrowing. The plan of keeping the book-cards in pockets inside the books is common, but of course this destroys the value of the system as an indicator to the staff of books in and

out. At the same time, in open access libraries particularly, it facilitates service at the moment of issue.

432. The following diagrams show another of the popular systems used in British libraries. Each book has a small triangular pocket inside the front board, in which is placed a small book-card ($2 \times 1\frac{1}{8}$ inches) of manila, on which is written the class number, author and title of the book it represents. In cases of duplicate copies it is advisable to write the accession number on the book-card to facilitate stocktaking. Each book

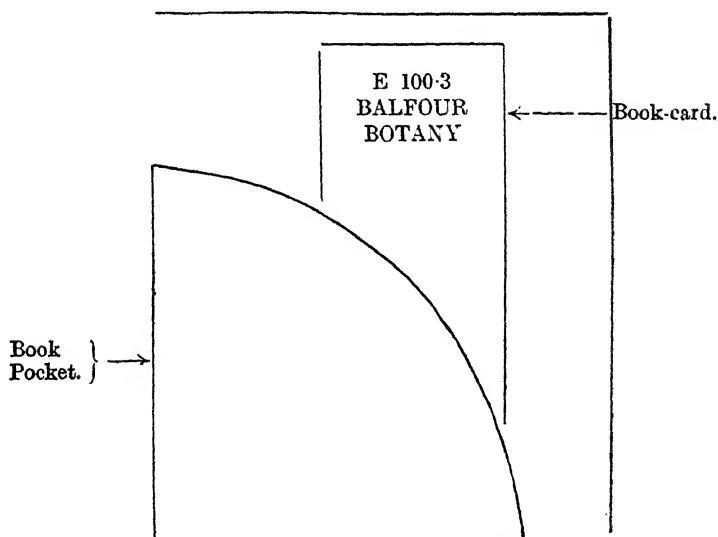


FIG. 165.—Book Pocket and Card (Section 432).

also has a date label inside the front board facing the book pocket (Fig. 165).

Each borrower has a neat linen-covered or other ticket, in the form of a pocket, bearing the name of the library, the name, address and number of the borrower, and the date when it will expire if periodical renewals are demanded. When a book is issued, the borrower hands his ticket and the book chosen to the assistant, who takes the book-card from the book pocket and places it in the pocket of the borrower's ticket, stamps the date of issue or return on the date label and issues the book. The charges are then arranged in trays as described below, and thus give a perfect record without writing (Figs. 166-166a.)

433. Charging Appliances.—An important part of a card method is the tray for holding and displaying the cards, and of this there are a number of kinds in use in libraries using indicators and in those working without them. For many reasons,

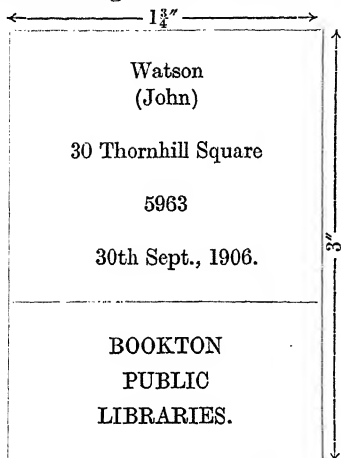


FIG. 166.—Borrower's Card with Pocket (Section 432).

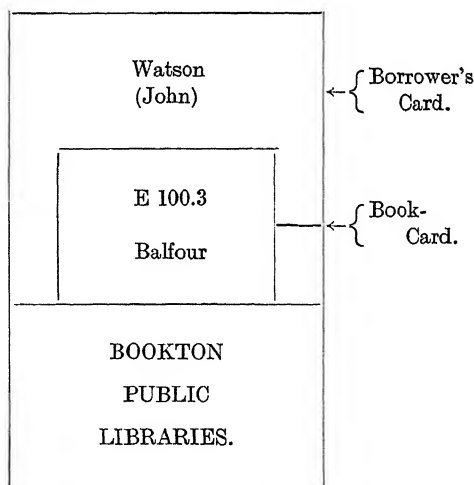


FIG. 166A.—Borrower's Card and Book-card conjoined (Section 432).

but above all for economy of space, it is best to use a comparatively small-sized charging card, the advantage being that all the accessories, such as trays and guides are correspondingly small, cheap and easily handled.

434. A standard size of card tray made of wood is shown in Fig. 167.

This tray (*b*) is provided with a rod (*a*) for securing the guides (*e*) in a continuous slot (*c*) at the bottom, to carry and secure the slot-fastening (*f*) of the guides (*e*). It has cut-away sides to facilitate the handling of the cards; a back slide or block (*d*) to retain the cards at any convenient or required angle; angle-bars and catch-pieces of brass (*g* and *h*) to secure a series of trays firmly in place, and prevent upsetting or knocking about.

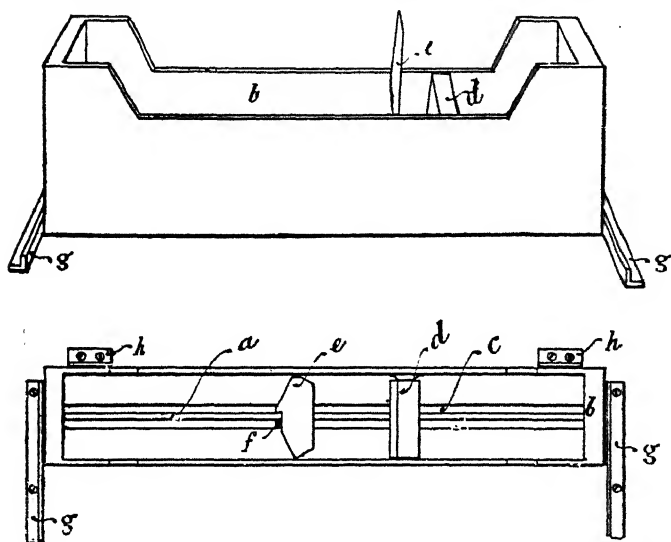


FIG. 167.—Elevation and Plan of Card-charging Tray (Section 434).

For every kind of card-charging, whether in connexion with an indicator or without, this style of single tray, capable of indefinite expansion, is preferable to drawers or frames divided into compartments. Each tray will hold with its guides approximately 300 cards, and, when divided up into hundreds, any number can be found quite rapidly.

435. The guides are generally made of steel, enamelled and figured, or from vulcanized fibre, xylonite or aluminium, bearing the numbers stamped upon them. Every charging system of this kind should have a set of nine guides for each thousand numbers, numbered simply, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, or having the hundreds running progressively throughout, 100, 200, 300, 400, etc. There should also be at least two

complete sets of date guides, numbered from 1 to 31 inclusive, a set of alphabetical guides (for unclaimed borrowers' cards) from A to Z, and the miscellaneous guides for fines, marked 1d., 2d., 3d., 6d., etc., "Overdues," "Renewals," "Guarantors Notified," etc. All these are necessary for working card-charging as described in this chapter.

436. It is advisable to provide a card-sorting tray, which may be a simple rack divided into narrow compartments representing thousands. The compartments need not be more than an inch wide, as the cards can lie just as easily on their



FIG. 168.—Card-charging Trays in use (Section 433–435). [*Libruco.*]

edges as flat, and with greater economy of space. Where fiction is kept in a separate series of trays, or the book-issue cards are classed, then, of course, some modifications will be required both in book-issue and sorting trays.

437. **The Dickman System.**—The Dickman charging system is an American device, much used in the United States and in use in a few libraries here. It employs the ordinary book-card, but each reader is provided with a ticket which is in effect an embossed stamp of his number. The ticket he retains always. When he borrows a book he presents it to the assistant, who makes the charge by inserting the book-card on the striking plate of a stamping machine in a carefully lined position, and inserts the borrower's ticket, with the date which is on a movable slide, into the arm of the machine. Between the arm

and the book-card is an inking ribbon and the operation is completed by striking the arm and thus impressing date and reader's number upon the book-card. The book-card is then inserted under its date in a tray. This method ensures a record of the numbers of borrowers who have read particular books; and it has the advantages that: a reader may borrow as many books as the library authority permits on one ticket as the stamped book-cards are the only records made; it is impossible to make the sort of error that occurs from the confusion of tickets; the staff has to handle only one ticket instead of two; and the space for the charging system is correspondingly reduced. On the other hand, the use of the machine must be a slower process than is ordinary card charging, and when overdues or queries involving a borrower occur, reference must be made from borrower's number to borrower's register.

438. A Historic Method—the Indicator.—This once much-used English appliance was the outcome of the early view that open shelves to which readers were admitted to choose their books were not practicable; it was a device for indicating or registering books, in a way that can be seen either by the staff alone, or by the public and staff both. It usually took the form of numbers displayed so as to indicate books *in* and *out*. Small spaces on a screen were numbered to represent books, and their presence in the library indicated by the space being blank, or their absence from the library shown by the space being occupied by a card or block. Or, colours were used to indicate books in and out, or a change in the position of the block representing a book. The first was made in 1863, by Mr. Charles Dyll, then Librarian at the Hulme Branch of the Manchester Public Libraries

439. The Elliott indicator was another variety, devised in 1870; but the indicator which was almost universally adopted was the "Cotgreave," invented by Albert Cotgreave, an enthusiastic and able librarian, in 1877. It exercised a baleful fascination for librarians generally and prevented library progress more effectively for thirty years than did any other product of their perverse invention. It is now interesting only in the historical view, as no library to-day could adopt it, but as it did exist in nearly every public library, a brief account appears to be necessary. It consisted of a frame, glazed on the public side, fitted with minute zinc shelves, generally 100 in a column, upon each of these rested a tiny metal-bound ledger,

containing a number of leaves, ruled and headed for the number of borrower's ticket, date of issue and date of return or other

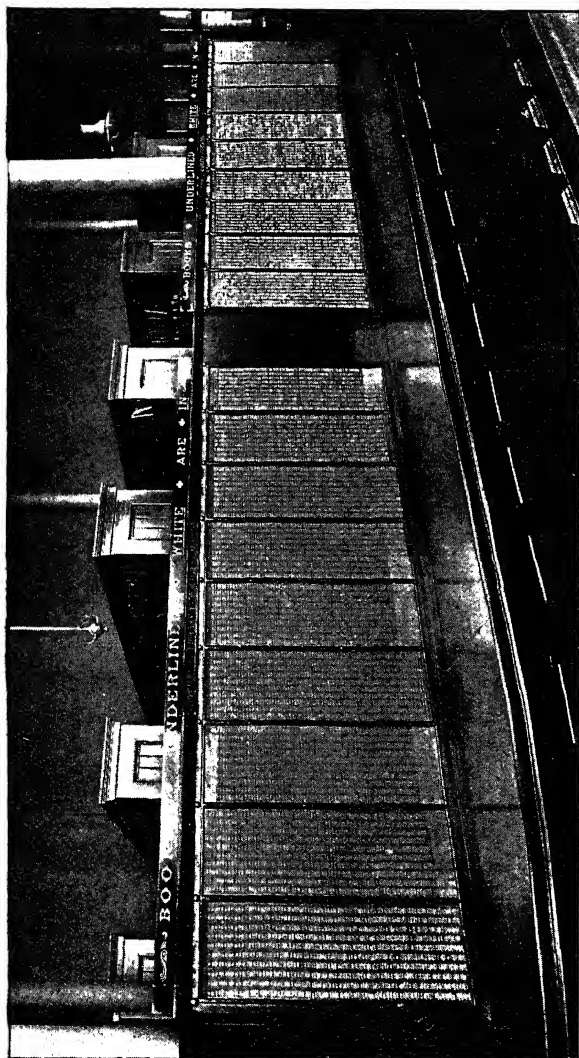


FIG. 169.—A Cotgreave Library Indicator (Section 439).

items, numbered or lettered at each end, and arranged numerically in the frames. The metal case had turned-up ends, and the

numbers were on a red ground at one end and on blue at the other, one colour showing books *out*, the other books *in*. The borrower chose books from the catalogue, consulted the indicator, and finding the required number to be on *blue*, denoting *in*, asked for the book. The assistant withdrew the ledger, made the necessary entries, inserted the borrower's ticket, and reversed the ledger, which then showed *red*, signifying *out*. The machine therefore acted both as indicator and as charging apparatus.¹ At one time a considerable controversy, often conducted with surprising acrimony, raged in England over the respective merits of indicator and open access methods. This continued from about 1894, when James Duff Brown inaugurated the safeguarded open shelf plus card-charging method at Clerkenwell (now Finsbury Central) Library. With advancing education readers require the removal of barriers, however ingenious and practical, between the books and themselves. At the same time, few libraries of any size can have more than a proportion of their books upon open shelves, but the indicator has no relation to the problems this important fact entails.

440.

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- For articles see Cannons, R, *Loan Work*, *Lending Dept.*, *Lending Library Methods*, and also *Library Literature* under these headings. Recent periodical library literature has been much concerned with counters and issue-methods.

¹ Few modern students have seen an indicator, and it is simply as a matter of history that the illustration of one (Fig. 169) is retained.

CHAPTER XXVI

BOOK DISTRIBUTION

441. Branch Libraries.—Greatest progress in recent years in library provision has been in the extending and strengthening of the branch library in all its forms. The time comes in every town of any size or area when there are numbers of people living at such distance from the central library as to make it inconvenient for them to use it. Then arises the question of some sort of library to serve them. In towns where the population is evenly distributed over the whole area, the problem is relatively simple, for here branch libraries at intervals of one mile may be accepted as a minimum satisfactory provision. There are exceptions to this ideal, however, where the lines of communication alter the distances, and branches may be closer together or farther apart as the circumstances dictate. It has been laid down that a branch should be provided for every 25,000 or larger unit of the population, but this may be too large a minimum for scattered or thinly populated suburban areas. It is merely an indication. New districts are served by smaller agencies which are sometimes called sub-branches, and by deposit stations, delivery stations, and by motor-travelling libraries. These may all be the forerunners of fully equipped branches and serve to test the demands of a new district.

442. A branch library is, roughly, a miniature central library, but with smaller administration space, a quick reference-collection rather than a reference library, and certainly containing lending library, reading rooms, a children's department, and a lecture room or rooms. Recent branch libraries are illustrated by the plans already given in Chapter IX.

The reasons for the various departments can be put briefly. Branches are in several towns the principal home-reading distributing centres, being nearer to the homes of the people than are central libraries, and therefore within easier reach, especially for women and children. Hence the emphasis is usually to be on the lending library. For the same reason most of the work with children in the average large town is

done in the branch libraries, and there may indeed be little or no demand for it at the central library. Reading rooms are obvious adjuncts though less emphasis is placed on newsrooms than formerly, and some new branch libraries omit them; and a collection of quick-reference works, directories, year-books, encyclopædias, gazetteers, atlases, dictionaries—works which answer everyday questions—is essential. It need not



FIG. 170.—Study Room, Firth Park Branch Library, Sheffield (Section 442).

be a large collection; it should be absolutely up-to-date: nothing but the best is good enough for a branch library. Fig. 170 illustrates the newest type of branch reference room, which is also a small study. A branch may be a social and intellectual centre, what in America is called a community centre, where local societies, clubs, and the literary and artistic organizations, which often perish for lack of house room, can be accommodated. Hence the usefulness of the lecture room. Other rooms will include a librarian's office, workroom, staff rest room, filing rooms and a modest amount of stack space, as well as kitchen and store-rooms for the cleaners or janitors.

443. Book-Stock.—The question of the book-stock for a branch is an important one. The old practice was to have uniform collections in each branch, but this has led to some library systems being clotted with unused copies of once well-used books which have lost their appeal; and the modern plan is to regard the branches as parts of one system, with as varied a stock as possible, every book being available by interchange throughout it. The matter is simplified to-day by the provision of a central reservoir stock containing books which are not often wanted and of which one or two copies, to be called for when required, suffice for the town. Such a system of working assumes that all libraries are connected by telephone, and that some means of transport exists between them. This may be solved by means of a motor service (see Section 449). The static stock of the branch, so far as any library stock can be static, consists of standard works in regular demand (or which ought to be) in their most attractive form, and as varied and systematic a representation as possible of modern literature. The quality will be adjusted, by knowledge gained in the work, to the needs and capacities of the neighbourhoods, and these, be it remarked, may differ widely in one town and acute perception and constant vigilance are essential in the branch staff to keep the chief librarian advised of this. Unceasing revision and frequent weeding-out are required in connexion with a branch stock.

444. Size of Branches.—What size a branch shall be is again determined by local conditions. In some urban areas, as in the metropolitan boroughs, the libraries may be all of equal size as the population is of equal density throughout, and one is the central library because of its proximity to the town hall or other urban government centre, and because it houses the administration department and the reference library. It would be impossible economically, even if it were otherwise desirable, to have a fully equipped reference department in each library. In some towns the branches vary in size with the probable demands of the population. Small branches may be almost as effective as larger ones if a book-exchange service exists. Fig. 171 shows a modern type of branch library in which all activities are pursued in one large room. The lending library runs round the walls; and the tables carry the periodicals. The tables fold up, and on one end wall is a lantern screen, and by these means at very short notice the room becomes available for lectures. There are no



FIG. 171.—The Ashburton Branch Library, Croydon (Section 444).



FIG. 172.—The Norbury Branch Library, Croydon (Section 444).

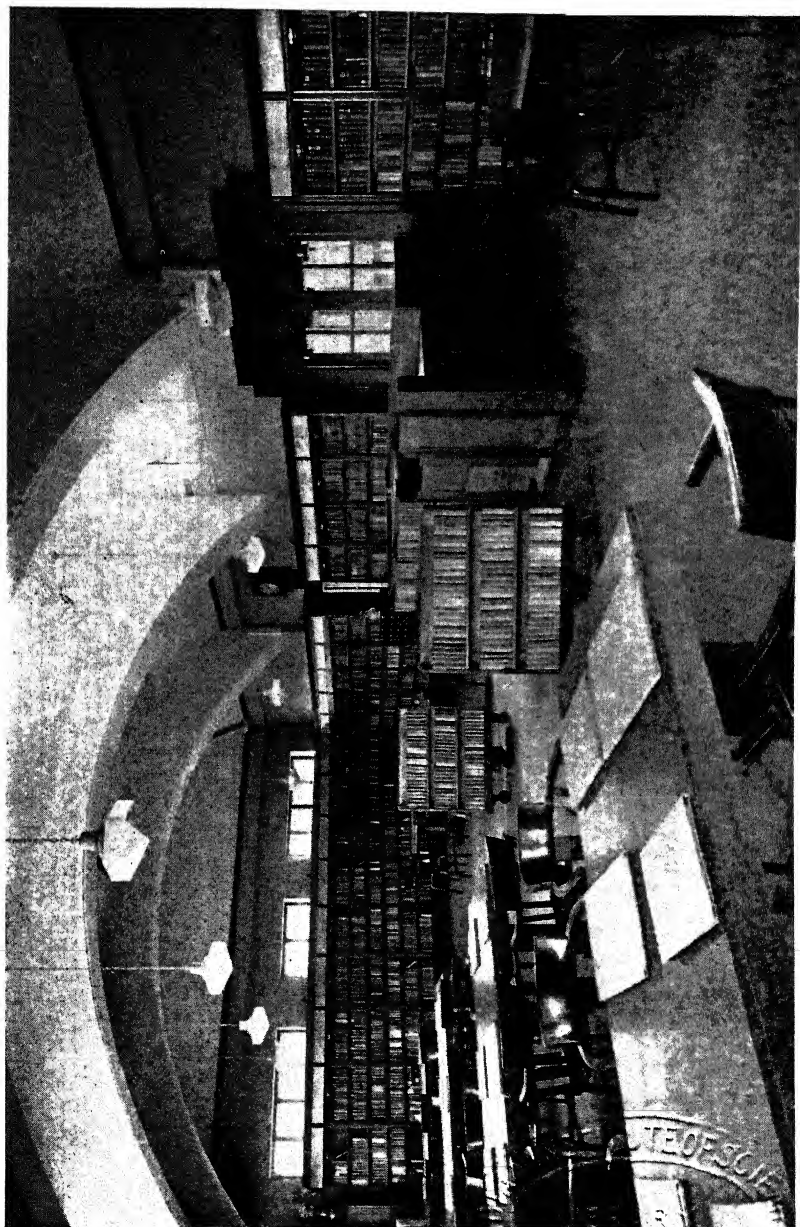


FIG. 173.—Adult Lending Library and Reading Room, Woodhouse Branch, Sheffield (Section 444).



FIG. 174.—Woodhouse Branch Library, Sheffield, showing blinds over Book-Cases (Section 444)

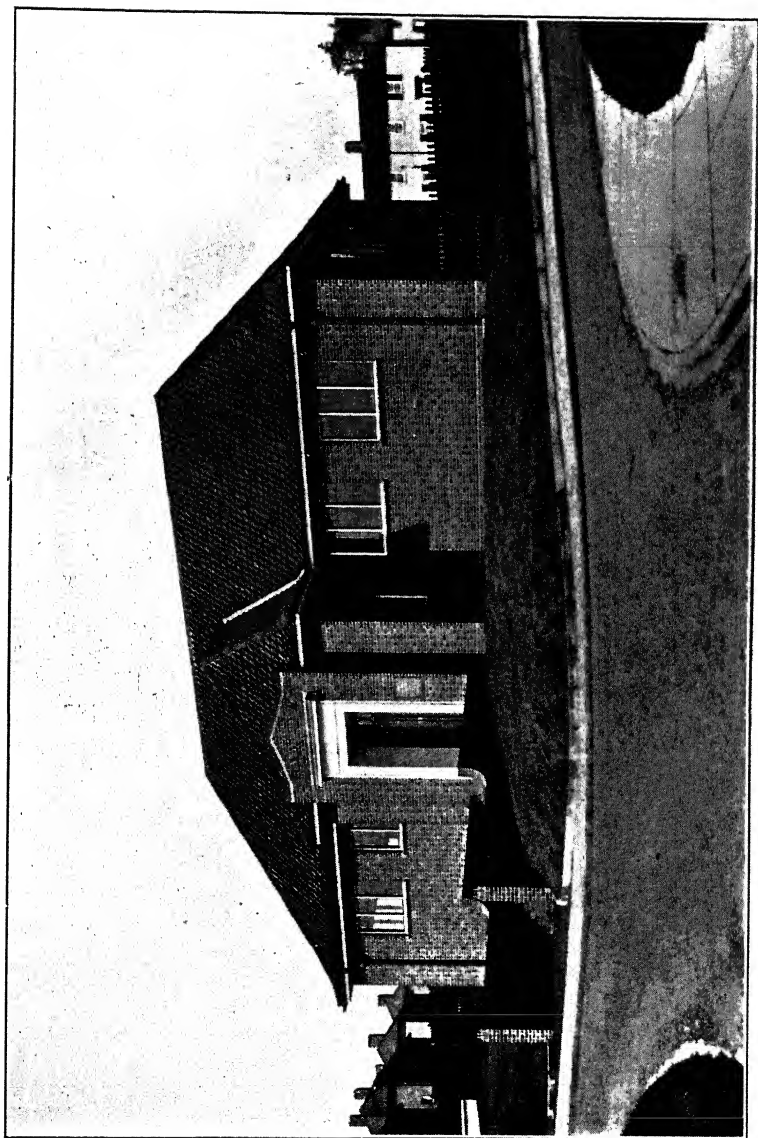


FIG. 175.—The Sea Mills Branch, Bristol (Section 444).

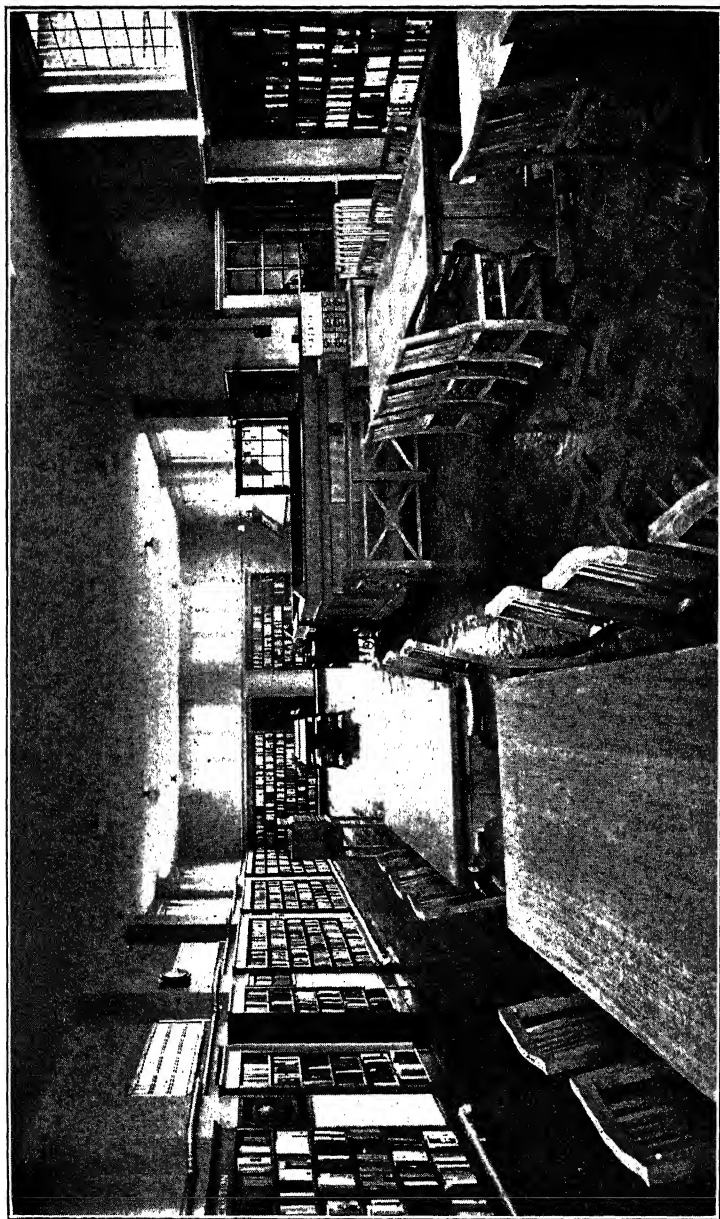


FIG. 175.—The Sea Mills Branch Library, Bristol—Interior (Section 444).

wickets. Fig. 172 shows a branch library in which lending and periodicals departments are combined. It is a very busy library, and quiet is obtained by rubber floor coverings. Fig. 173 shows a delightful little Sheffield Branch Library, Woodhouse, where this combination of lending library and reading room also occurs, and here, when the lending section is not working, the bookcases are covered with blinds in the manner shown in Fig. 174. The popular one-room library, suitable for small fringe areas and with possibilities of extension, are shown in the Sea Mills Branch Library at Bristol (Figs. 175-76). These types of library are suitable for country towns and residential areas of the middle-class sort (if these words may be used without the least idea of snobbery), where the readers become well known to the staff. In most cases a branch library should be as compact as possible, the apartments being *en suite* and the ideal of a great room divided merely by furniture, or at the most glass screens is as good as any. Admirable examples of branch libraries now exist in every part of the country; the large ones at Glasgow have had much influence as have those of Manchester and Sheffield; there are also model branches at Leeds on a slightly smaller scale; the one-room branch idea has been developed well at Halifax, and has also found expression at Bristol and Cardiff, and the most recent excellent models are those of Coulsdon and Purley; the librarian should visit as many of these as possible.

445. Branch Staffs.—A library system is judged by the service the reader receives at the part of it which he uses. The branch librarian is the representative of the chief librarian in his district, and it follows that for this post only trained persons with culture, method and initiative should be chosen; nothing could be more detrimental to a library system than the placing of a whole district in the keeping of a librarian inadequate to his office. The matter need not be pursued further here, as we have already dealt with the qualities of the good librarian, but personality, the power to cultivate relations with all local organizations, schools, the clergy, and other obvious institutions and people, and to represent their needs should be sought for in a branch librarian. His staff should be chosen with like care. They should be critical of the stock under their care, watchful of the needs of their readers, and cultivate with assiduity an acquaintance with all the movements of the day and with current books. On the side of the chief librarian there should be the willingness, indeed the expectation, to receive

suggestions of all kinds from the branch staff. Team work is vital to modern library service, and is happily now general, especially when the chief librarian himself is loyal to his own ideals and invites loyalty by giving it.

The ideal staffing of a deposit or delivery station (Sections 447-48) is a member of the staff who can attend the station, but this is not always possible. It is more usual to make an arrangement with the shopkeepers or other persons in charge

LIBERTON PUBLIC LIBRARIES.												
NORTH BRANCH.—REPORT.												
Date.....												
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	J	K	L	Total.
Lending Issues .												
Reference Issues												
Receipts from Fines												
„ „ Catalogues, etc.												
Books asked for												
Books wanted from Central												
Supplies wanted												
Callers and occurrences												
												Signed.....

Fig. 177.—Branch Library Return (Section 446).

of the place concerned so that they shall receive and deliver the books. In some cases the publicity gained is considered to be sufficient recompense ; in others, there is a small remuneration.

446. It is impossible to lay down any rules for guidance as regards the financing of branches, beyond the general recommendation that they should not be developed at the expense of the central library. It is better to have one efficient library in a town than several inefficient ones, as is the case in some towns where this wholesome principle has been forgotten or ignored, through the unreasonable demands of ward committee representatives, bent upon getting everything they can for their

own district at the expense of the system as a whole. Separate account should be kept of all moneys devoted to each branch. Receipts should also be separately accounted for, and the central library should receive a daily or weekly statement of all cash intromissions, issues, occurrences, etc. Such statements can either be rendered upon specially ruled sheets or postcards, or kept in books according to some such form as shown in Fig. 177. All forms, books, etc., at the branch should correspond with those of the central library, and everything affecting administration stated throughout this book applies, though in a modified degree, to branch work.

447. Deposit Stations.—Where a branch library cannot yet be justified there may still be need for some sort of library service. Deposit stations are established to meet this need. In schools, institutions of other kinds, shops, or even private houses, small collections of from 100 volumes upwards are placed from which readers may make choice. These collections are changed at frequent intervals, as they would otherwise soon be “read up”; moreover, it is usual to choose as a deposit station a place with the telephone, by means of which books can be requisitioned.

448. Delivery Stations are similar places to those used for deposit stations except that there is no stationary stock in them. They are merely centres where readers requisition and return books. These are not now much used in England; the station combining the features both of deposit and delivery station is preferred.

449. Exchange and Motor Services.—We assume throughout that a library system operates as if it were one library. A book in any library should be available at any other library, except books from the reference library. Even in connexion with these the reference library should telephone information to any point in the system on request. For example, a reader at the North Branch wanting a formula, definition of a legal phrase or any like information not available at that branch should not be told to go to the Central Library, but should be given the answer over the telephone. All readers’ tickets should be available at every library in the system; and the system achieves an even better result if it so works that a borrower may draw a book from one library and change it at any other as he desires. As it may be desirable, however, for each library to keep its own stock distinct, means must be devised for charging and discharging books by telephone and

for returning books to the libraries to which they belong. Telephone service is a most important part of library working, but in a large system it can only be done efficiently if there is a private exchange, or its equivalent, somewhere in the system. At Croydon between six libraries as many as 40,000 inter-branch calls are made each year, and in the great systems this number would be multiplied several times. The transport of the books can range from the simplest affair, as by bicycle carrier, to the full-time motor van.

450. In one town a ten-cwt. van is hired for two hours—9 a.m. to 11 a.m.—each day, and this makes an outward journey from the central library to all the branches, leaving boxes with books and other library material as they are required, and then makes an inward journey, calling again at each library. This system has six libraries and the average time in travelling between any two is ten minutes, so that the double journey is accomplished in two hours. This method costs (1936) £2 weekly, but this price is a low one; from 5s. to 6s. per hour is not unreasonable. In greater towns with many libraries, one or more motor vans are owned by the library which make a double, or even treble, round of the branch libraries daily. Such a system exists at Glasgow and Manchester, and the method is the obvious one for county libraries. Its cost varies in the different cities, but a good van is desirable, and such questions as weight, capacity, fuel consumption, wages, garaging, insurances and depreciation must be studied locally. The value of such a service is obvious; it opens the reservoir stock and the stock of every library to users at every part of the system, and makes the service of large numbers of deposit and delivery stations a simple matter. A further ideal would be a light car to carry urgent material or books at the moment they are asked for; but the urgency is rarely so great as to justify the cost of it. Large municipalities provide their chief officers with a car, or make an allowance on which they maintain their own cars, or have municipal garages and cars on which the libraries may draw for ordinary personal official transport, their quota of cost being paid from library funds. We assume that the car is now so inexpensive that it is used by all library systems of more than (say) two buildings, although it may still be necessary to convince a library committee of the necessity.

Such a motor-van as that used at Glasgow can be furnished with shelves and used as a travelling library, which can stand in remote streets and serve their inhabitants, as, indeed, is

actually done at Manchester and at Erith. This, of course, is the method used by county systems here and in America, and it is quite suitable for large and sprawling towns with rural and thinly-peopled boundaries.

451. Subscription Departments or Book Clubs.—In some of the older municipal libraries subscription departments or book clubs have been established, as a means of increasing the stock of a library, without much expense. Such departments exist, or have existed, at Bolton, Burton, Dewsbury, Dundee, Elgin, Leek, Tynemouth, Wednesbury and Workington. They are operated as follows: For a certain annual subscription any library reader or townsman may join this select library. From the subscriptions so received, supplemented in some places by occasional grants from the rate, new books are bought, generally in accordance with the wishes of a majority of members, but on this point practice varies. For a definite time these books are exclusively at the service of subscribers, who borrow them in the usual way, for a fortnight or other periods according to circumstances. At the end of the time the books are transferred to the public library, and become the property of the library authority for the use of all borrowers. Where the selection is made with discretion, this may seem an economical way of obtaining books for a public library; but objections have been raised. Public libraries, it is argued, have no right to set up a privileged class in this way, especially as it is probable that the subscriptions cannot pay all the cost of service, lighting and housing, which thus falls on the library funds; and, further, public libraries would do well to avoid competition, in this and in other ways, with commercial subscription libraries.

Occasionally public libraries pay a subscription to large commercial libraries and are enabled to borrow so many volumes at a time, which are re-issued to the borrowers in the ordinary way, the library being responsible for losses. In small libraries this was justified on the ground that it was an economical way of obtaining the temporary loan of copies of expensive books for which there is a large transient demand, and which might never be bought, or only obtained in second-hand form after their prime interest had faded. Co-operation has reduced this need; and in actual fact, the method has been used as a cheap way of getting the temporary use of a quantity of ephemeral fiction—a most doubtful advantage.

452. Publicity and Readers' Aids.—A well-stocked and

resent directions of any kind as an invasion of their privacy. British librarians are often misled into adopting American methods, which successful there are unsuitable here. When personal showing round cannot be done, a small printed plan of the department showing the disposition of the shelves, catalogues and other arrangements as explained in Section 297, may be given to each reader.

454. Index of Readers' Interests.—In connexion with registration a line can be placed upon the application voucher

G

HORNSEY PUBLIC LIBRARIES

You may be interested to learn that a new book on

.....
has recently been added to the.....

Library, viz.....
.....

If you would like to bespeak this book, hand this card to an Assistant at any of the libraries.

J. G. FARADAY,
Borough Librarian.

FIG. 179.—Index of Readers' Interests. Card sent to reader notifying the addition of a book (Section 454).

on which the reader is invited to indicate his special interest or interests. From this an Index of Readers' Interests may be made. The diagram (Fig. 178) shows a card for such an index. This is invaluable as one of the guides to book-provision, enables the librarian at times to bring together people with a common interest, and has the service advantage that readers can be advised, by a card or folder, as shown in Fig. 179, when new books are added. Such a service, however, must be made a regular routine; to do it in slipshod manner would be worse than useless.

455. The Readers' Adviser.—This is a qualified librarian who specializes in bibliography in such manner that he can

advise readers in their search for knowledge. He has a separate room, or desk, adjacent to collections of reference books, with telephonic communication with all departments and the outer world. His time is spent in compiling lists for readers, indicating to them the best approach to books for any intellectual stage at which they stand, and in seeing that the books needed are made available readily for them. Much is made of this office, as indeed it deserves if it is remotely worthy of the name attached to it. A readers' adviser is one who apparently is able to gauge the reading capabilities of any enquirer, can fit him with the right book in every situation and upon every subject, is therefore competent in psychology, expert in bibliography and has knowledge approaching omniscience. Such a person does not exist, or if he does is not content with the salary any librarian living receives. Only the great national libraries can employ specialists and then only in the major subjects. So much for the unconditional use of a term which is rather too common. What is intended, however, and is possible is that every trained librarian should be so skilled in bibliography that he can lead readers to help themselves. It is desirable in large libraries that every considerable department should have a librarian always on duty who can pass on information which is available in books, and be at the service of readers. Readers' assistant would be a good term for this person, and is without the pretentious associations of "adviser." What should be clear is that many readers require various types of guidance, and there should be someone ready to give it. This assistant should maintain relations with such specialists in the area as can be persuaded to advise, with all agencies for education, adult and otherwise, all societies, clubs and organizations likely to use books, and may act virtually in the capacity of public relations officer. A good account of the work done in America by the readers' adviser is given by Jennie M. Flexner in her *Circulation Work in Public Libraries*, 1927.

456. Reservations of Books.—Most libraries reserve books for readers. This is not always done for fiction, mainly because the labour involved is not justified by results, and some maintain that it gives those who can pay unfair advantages—although this argument is without much force to-day. Usually a charge is made covering the postage of the postcard notifying the borrower when the book is ready; in other cases a charge of twopence is made to cover the cost of the service. The reader fills a bespoken slip (Fig. 180) and addresses the postcard

(Fig. 181), the charge for the book is found in the trays, and a projecting card with the word **BESPOKEN** is inserted into the pocket as an indication to the assistant at the counter. When

BESPOKEN BOOK	Date.....193.....
	Receipt No.
<p>Any work (<i>except English novels published during the last ten years</i>) may be bespoken. Please fill in as many details as you can and hand this slip with 2d. reservation fee to an assistant. You will be notified when the book is available.</p> <p>The latest additions are listed in "<i>The Reader's Index</i>" (the Libraries' Magazine, price 2d)</p>	
Author	
Title	
Class	Branches.....
Reader's Name.....	
Address	
Acc. No.....	
Due back.....	Stopped.....
P.c.....	Issued.....
Issues / Repl / Withdr / Res / Rep / Qu / Br Exch / Overd L / Bind / LiC	

FIG. 181.—Application to be filled in by the reader, for the reserving of a book. The blanks below the lower line are for staff use, and the calligraphic signs at the foot indicate the records of Replacements, Withdrawn Books, Reserve, Replacements, Queries, etc., which are to be searched, the final L' indicating that in the event of the book being untraced the slip is to be handed to the librarian-in-charge (Section 456).

the book is returned the card is posted, and the book is usually kept for about twenty-four hours.

457. Miscellaneous.—The number of books that readers may borrow has already been discussed in Section 403. Every effort should be made to meet the special needs of readers if this can be done without prejudice to the general service.

The lending library should be active in every sense. The books should be kept in scrupulously clean and bright condition, the axiom being observed that it is better to have fewer clean books than many dirty ones. Where much of the main stock is in stack rooms, selections should regularly be brought to the open shelves, displacing other books there for the time being, as it is unfortunately true that where open access obtains

PUBLIC LIBRARIES

BESPOKEN BOOK

The Chief Librarian has the pleasure of informing you that the above book is now available, and will be reserved for you at the Library until 9 p.m. on.....

Please bring your Ticket or another book in exchange when applying for this book.

The Lending Library closes at 1 p.m. on Wednesdays.

FIG. 181.—Postcard sent to reader when reserved book is available
(Section 456).

books in the stacks are neglected. Exhibitions of topical books on special shelves, stands or tables with appropriate posters enliven the department; they are worth much care and thought when they can be afforded. Guides, labels and notices should be neat, have colour, and be changed frequently; only new notices are ever read by modern folk.

458. Various methods for meeting special needs of readers have been devised.

Books are sometimes sent by post to readers who cannot visit the library in person; and this may certainly be done

for invalids and for readers who may be away temporarily. In some cases the reader pays postage, which is somewhat prohibitive. It can be argued that the business of the library is to supply the book and to meet all the costs of that supply, but this is not accepted generally.

Some libraries permit readers to borrow twice the usual number of books when they are about to depart on holiday ;

<p style="text-align: center;">WATFORD PUBLIC LIBRARY BORROWER'S TRANSFER CERTIFICATE</p> <p>To the Librarian.....</p> <p>This is to certify that the undermentioned person is a duly registered borrower at the Watford Public Library, and holds.....*tickets.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">GEORGE R. BOLTON, <i>Borough Librarian.</i></p> <p>Date.....</p> <p>Name</p> <p>Watford Address.....</p> <p>..... Address</p> <p><i>* At the Watford Public Library three tickets are issued to every borrower, if required, and borrowers are entitled to use these tickets for any type of book : Fiction, Non-Fiction, Music, or Junior.</i></p>
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FIG. 181A.—Watford Borrowers' Transfer (Section 458).

sometimes more. These holiday issues are for six weeks or thereabouts.

Arrangements were made thirty years ago between Brighton and Croydon whereby readers from either could borrow books at the other on presenting their library tickets. This has been developed, largely owing to the good example and effort of Birmingham, and now a large number of towns accept readers' tickets from other places. In some cases the home town issues a certificate which indicates that the reader is in good standing. The Watford example (Fig. 181A) is from a duplicating book which enables a carbon copy to be kept at Watford.

The time is near, however, when the production of the reader's tickets, if they are current, will be sufficient passport to a new library. In this way not only is provision made for holidays, but readers removing from one town to another are able to take up library membership without delay in the new town. The method should be universal. The modern library works as part of a national system. Every library should be a member of one of the Regional Library Systems and thus of the National Central Library, paying its quota of the cost based upon the population served. This is the most important development of the library service and is dealt with separately in Chapter XXXVI. In that chapter too the claims of another great institution, the National Library for the Blind, are also made clear.

All efforts should be directed towards the fullest and most productive use of books by readers. Even if, as occasionally happens, some extravagances are developed in the effort, they do not matter so much as would any hindrance to the free and convenient service of all classes of readers.

459. Hospital and Invalid Library Work.—A man who is sick does not cease to be a citizen and his reading needs in illness deserve the fullest consideration. In all hospitals the therapeutic value of appropriate books is recognized and attempts are made to supply them, by voluntary effect usually. Of late years, however, a definite organized campaign has existed in which the municipal and county libraries are taking part; and the Library Association has a Hospital Libraries Committee engaged in the promotion of efficient service for the sick. The average public library can, for a small outlay, provide a selection of suitable books, and can—where voluntary librarians are not available—send an assistant once or twice weekly or as often as the need appears to dictate—to distribute books to the patients. Mr. George R. Bolton, who does such work acceptably at Watford, has designed a special book-trolley (Fig. 182) on which books, pleasantly displayed, can be wheeled through the wards. There must, of course, be willing co-operation between hospital and library staffs, but usually that is present, and a certain sum must be allowed for losses which in the circumstances of a hospital may not always be avoidable. Some systems provide books for the hospital staff as well as the patients, and where possible this is to be commended. The hospitals in question are those dealing with non-infectious and non-contagious diseases.



FIG. 182.—Hospital Library Service at Watford (Section 459).

The individual invalid reader in his home should not be overlooked. Where the librarian is satisfied that such a reader cannot obtain books through his own messenger, it is worth the effort to supply him by the library's messengers. Such demands are rarely so many as to be burdensome, and the value of the service is incalculable.

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DIVISION X

THE REFERENCE DEPARTMENT

CHAPTER XXVII

GENERAL REFERENCE LIBRARY METHOD

460. Character and Scope of the Department.—The reference library, when it is developed to its full possibilities, is the communal study, bureau of information, and muniment house. A definition of reference work turns upon a definition of a reference book, to a large extent, and it is not easy to give more than an approximate one. A reference book is one which is consulted to obtain some particular fact or matter from it and not one that is read through as a whole. All works in dictionary, encyclopædic, chronological, periodical and similar forms are of this character. But any book which may be consulted in the way indicated is also legitimately a reference book. Further, all literary and graphic material which may so be consulted, whether in MSS., printed, photographic or other form, is rightly a part of such a library. The encyclopædic work is therefore the basal stock of the department; and standard treatises on every branch of literature, whether in actual reference form or not; and the definitive editions of the classics, as for example the Variorum Shakespeare, must be included. Transient or permanent small reference material, such as pamphlets, magazine articles, broadsides, news-clippings, trade catalogues, illustrations, maps, etc., should all find a place in it; in fact, much of the most valued information work is done with the aid of such small material; important facts are frequently found in seemingly insignificant material; and the work of bringing it in relation to other similar material is one of the services of the reference library.

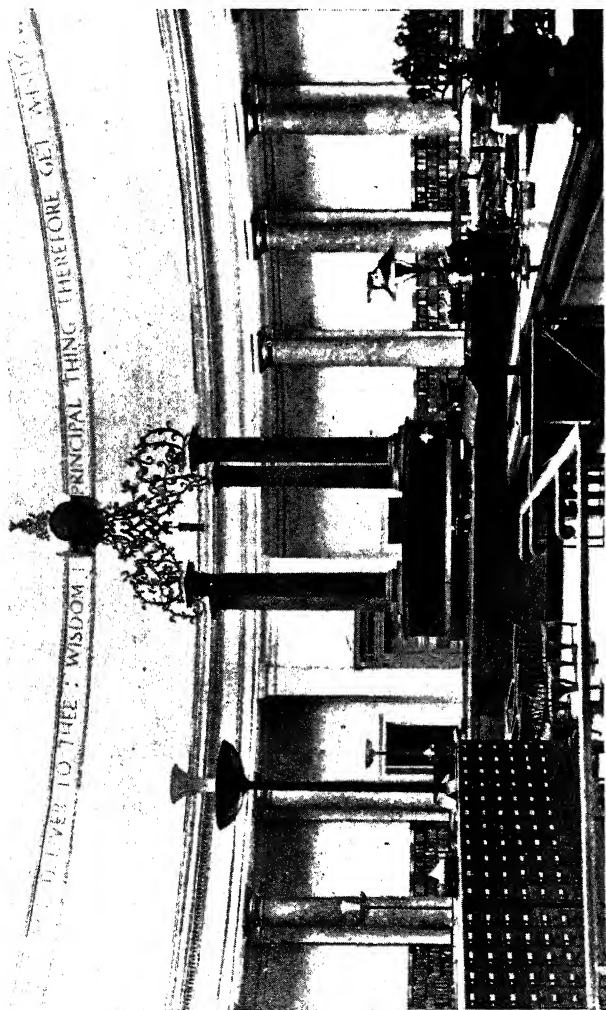
From such a statement of the nature of the stock the purpose of the department may be deduced. Primarily, as its name implies, it is a place where references to books are made; but although this is primary, it is too limited a statement of the

functions of the department. In it continuous reading, research, and prolonged study are all carried on, and if a library does not provide facilities for these, it is to that extent inefficient. These considerations give rise to certain necessary arrangements, the first of which is freedom of access to quick-reference material.

In the arrangement of the library building it is essential that the most quiet part of the building which is accessible to the public should be devoted to the reference department. It should be a room which in its design and proportions is dignified, and produces by these things and its furnishing and decoration an atmosphere conducive to mental tranquillity and study. It is impossible to define such an atmosphere, but it exists in all really successful reference libraries, and these may be studied at most of our great cities and towns, as at Bristol, Birmingham, Liverpool, in the British Museum, and elsewhere. The decorations, for example, if there are any beyond the merely architectural, such as painted ceilings and walls, should indeed be artistic, but are appropriate only when they are restrained, unobtrusive, and do not divert readers from the main purpose of the room or encourage visitors to come merely to stare at them. Some reference libraries, built on ecclesiastical models, have stained-glass windows which are beautiful features, but the same principles apply in this form of decoration.

461. Furniture.—The library furniture must depend upon the size, shape and lighting of the room, but the alcove system, as it exists at the Bodleian and similar older libraries, has never been surpassed from the point of view of *study*, although it is possibly not so good as the rotunda of the British Museum, or that of the Library of Congress, and the Picton Reading Room at Liverpool, for merely reference purposes. Again, the alcove system occupies more space than one in which the cases are fixed against the walls and arranged in other parts of the room to secure the maximum of shelf accommodation. As regards tables and seating accommodation, the older reference departments in municipal libraries have usually been defective in that they merely allowed seats at long tables, with about twenty-four inches of sitting space and a half of a two- or three-foot table in front, often with provision, equally scant, for a reader to sit opposite. The reference reader requires not only isolation, to a considerable extent, as is provided at the British Museum, but a sufficiency of space in which to spread out his books and papers. Moreover, nothing is more disconcerting and uncom-

fortable to some readers than the close proximity of other people. This is recognized in the British Museum and similar libraries, where each reader has what is virtually a desk to



[Copyright, the Manchester Public Libraries.
FIG. 183.—The Great Hall (Reference Library), Manchester (Sections 460-476).

himself so constructed as to secure the maximum of privacy. Small, self-contained separate tables as described in Section 215 are satisfactory. These give plenty of surface space and



FIG. 189.—The Great Reading Room of the Mitchell Library, Glasgow (Sections 460-476).

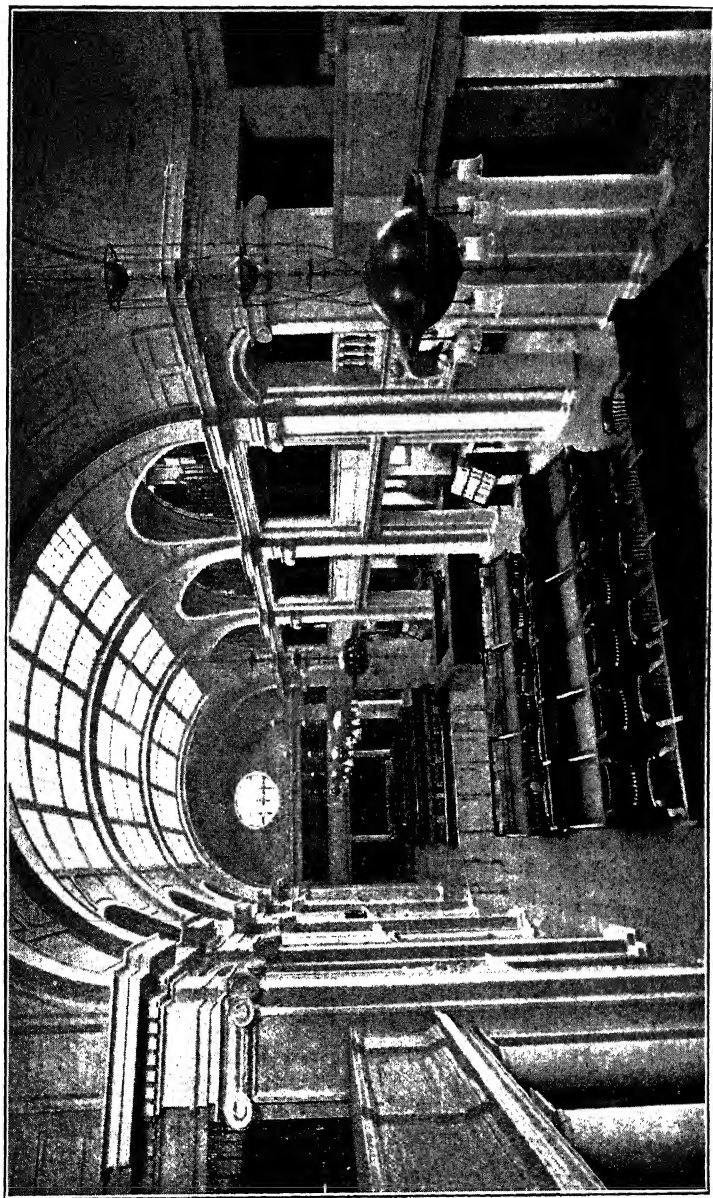


Fig. 185.—The Bristol Reference Library (Sections 460-76).

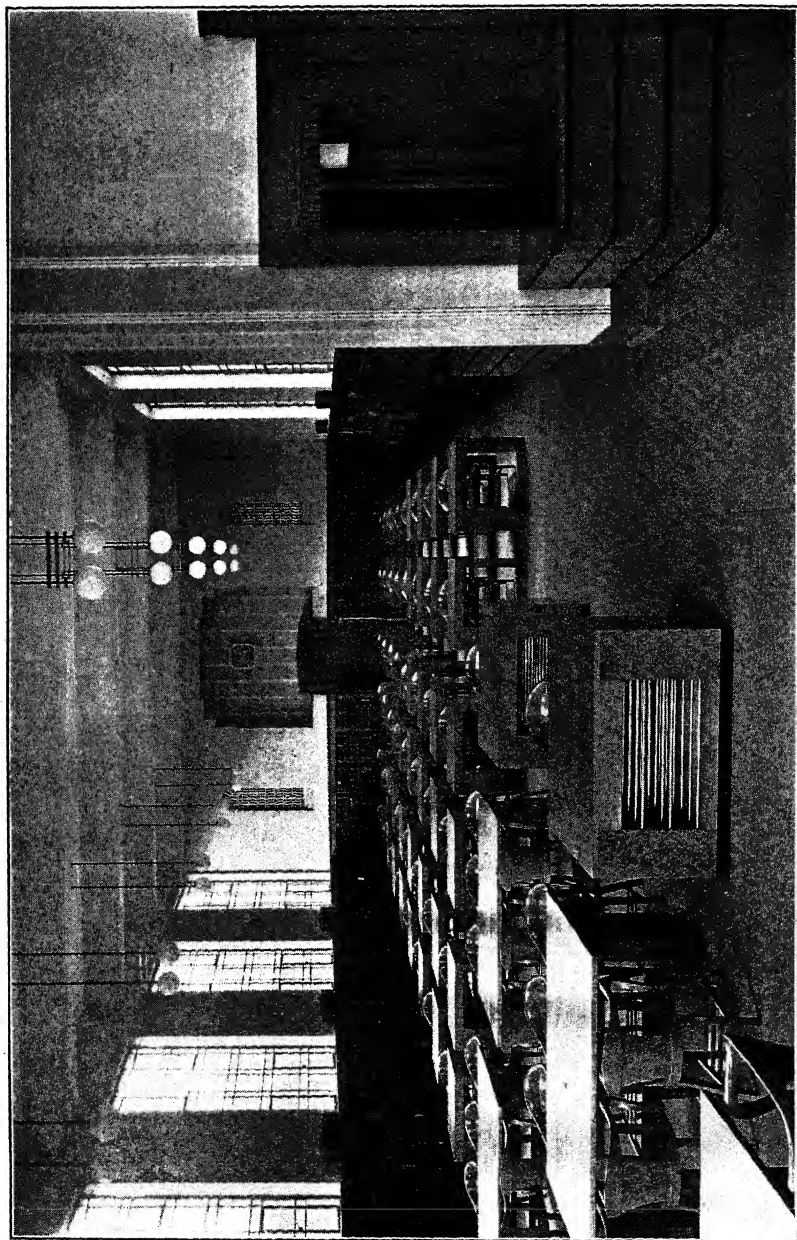


FIG. 186.—The Sheffield Reference Library—West Wing (Sections 460-476).

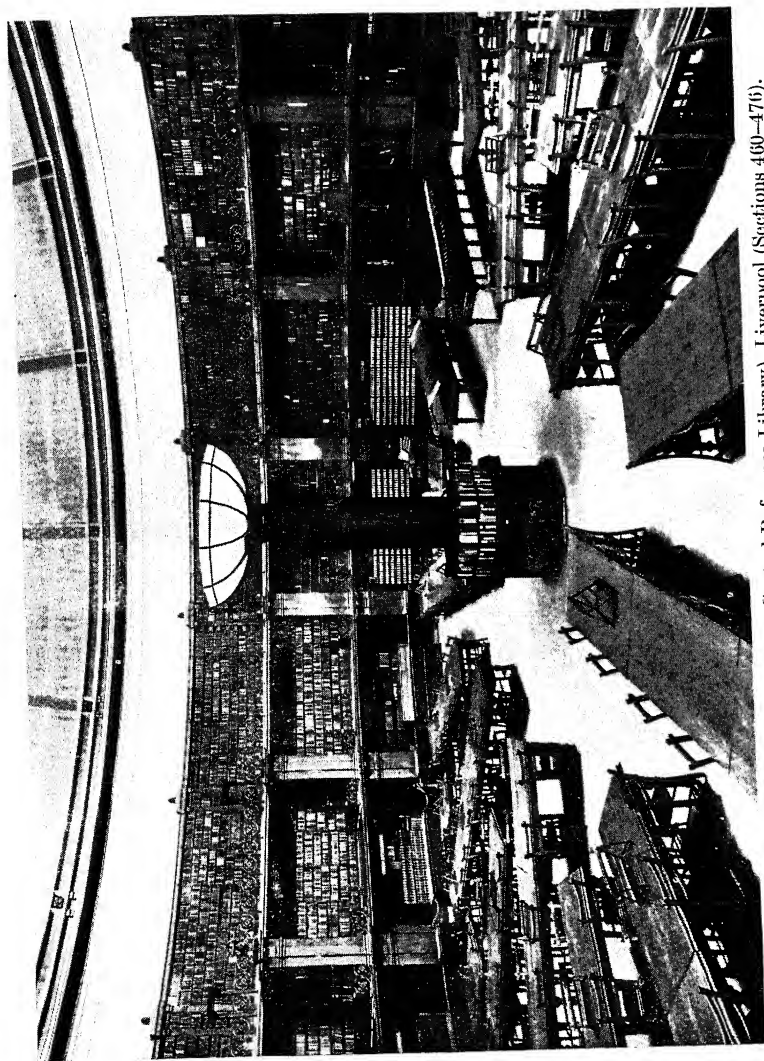


FIG. 187.—The Picton Reading Room (Central Reference Library), Liverpool (Sections 460—476).

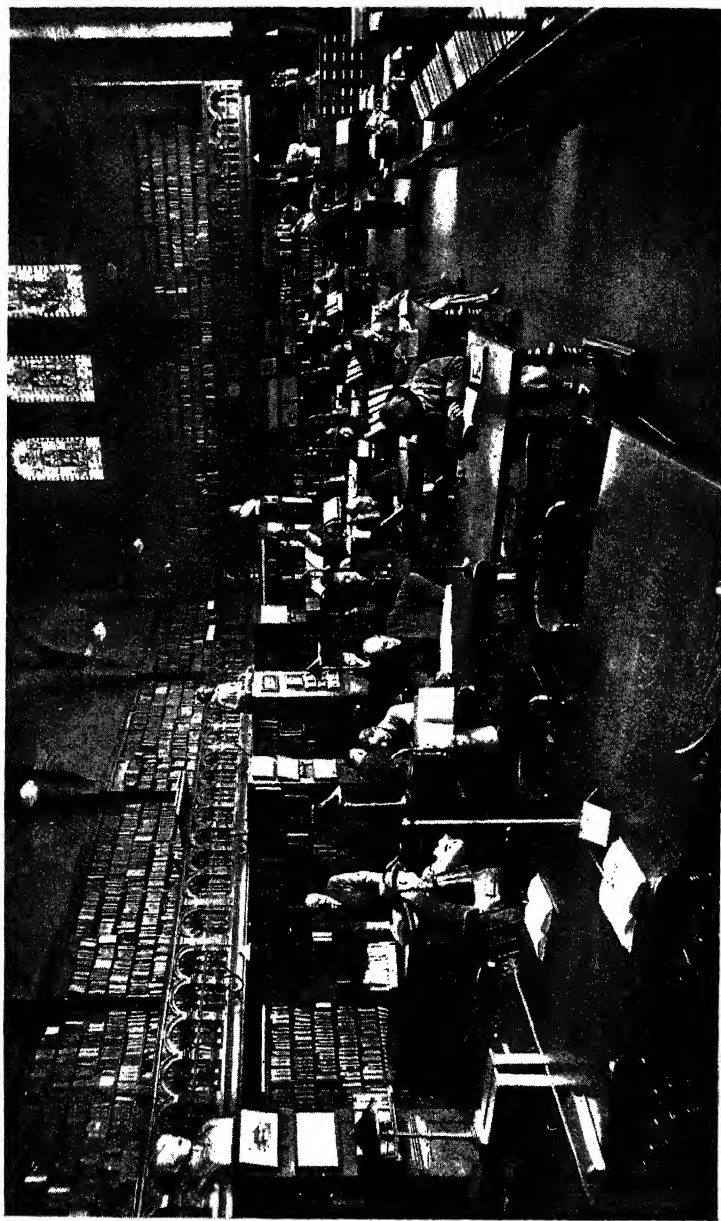


FIG. 188.—The Croydon Reference Library (Sections 460-476).

provide a definite amount of space for books under the tables. For the consultation of elephant folios and similar very large books the special slope outlined in Fig. 47 and described in Section 204 is desirable. One or two large flat tables for use in special cases should also be provided.

462. Access.—No great reference library can permit unrestricted access to its whole collections, but in small libraries it is desirable, and even in the largest a measure of it is arranged. The British Museum, Birmingham and other large reference libraries allow readers free choice to a collection mainly of quick-reference character, including atlases, gazetteers, dictionaries, directories, encyclopædias and codes, which answer everyday questions and which are wanted without delay. These often form a fairly considerable reference library. Smaller libraries allow freedom of access to nearly the whole collection; but none allows it to the whole; there are in many libraries unique books, records, and other works to which access is wisely limited, in the interest of their preservation as records and from other points of view. All it is wished to emphasize here is that open access without any formality whatever should be allowed to the obvious quick-reference works of the kind enumerated above. A much-occupied business man who wants an address, the definition of a word, or a cable code is not likely to endure patiently the bother of filling up application forms, and to insist upon it may mean the loss of the patronage of a valuable class of the community. To this end, and for other obvious reasons, where space permits it is wise to devise the department so that the quick-reference reader is separated from the student who wants quiet for continuous work.

For the general part of the reference library where open access is in vogue admission is usually gained by signing the visitors' book. Such signing has no definite safeguarding value, but is to some extent a moral check upon would-be defaulters, and is useful as a means of registering the number of readers. The plans given in Chapter IX give some idea of the disposition of the ordinary reference library, and no one plan can be called the best. All that can be affirmed positively is that ample reading space should be allowed, that good light, natural and artificial, and ventilation, ease of administering the stock, close classification and the fullest cataloguing possible should be aimed at. The commonest error, as we have hinted, is crowding and insufficiency of seating accommodation. A well-administered reference library creates its own reading public, and accom-

modation which may be ample at the opening of the library often proves in a few years to be inadequate. The illustrations in this chapter show some of the finest reference libraries in Great Britain.

Where access to shelves is not allowed, and application forms are used, it is customary to supply blanks similar to that shown in Fig. 189, on which particulars of the book wanted are entered.

CAREVILLE PUBLIC LIBRARY.		
REFERENCE DEPARTMENT.		
No Book must on any account be removed from this room, or transferred to other readers.		
Book No.	Author and Title of Book.	Initial of Assistant.
Name of Applicant..... Address <div style="text-align: right;">Date.....</div>		

FIG. 189.—Reference Library Application Form (Section 462).

In some libraries these slips are placed on the shelves in the place of the books issued, and remain there till the books are replaced. To ascertain that no books are missing an assistant examines the shelves every morning, and notes any slips still remaining which represent books issued on the previous day. To facilitate this operation a differently coloured slip may be used on alternate days—white to-day, blue to-morrow—so that on a white day the presence of a blue slip will instantly draw attention to a misplacement or a missing book. In other libraries the slips are filed near the point of issue, and remain there as a check against

the shelves and the readers until the books are returned. Some libraries return the slip to the borrowers as a receipt, and compile their statistics from the books ; others retain the slips for statistical purposes. Some libraries also insert an issue label in the inside front of each book, which is stamped every time the book is issued, and thus a record is made of a book's popularity or otherwise, which may prove useful when discarding has to be considered. Application forms, or for that matter signatures in visitors' books, are no protection against theft of books. Readers, if they intend theft, have simply to give a false name and address, and walk off with any book they please.

463. It is the common practice in open access reference libraries to have notices displayed of this nature :

**Readers are requested not
to return books to the shelves
when they have done with
them, but to close them and
leave them on the table.**

Or, they may be required to return them to the assistant ; in any case it is better for readers not to return them to the shelves. Either of the methods recommended enables the staff to make records of the use of books. The consultations can be entered up on a daily classified issue record, and the staff can replace the books at once. It will be recognized that complete statistics are practically impossible in open access departments, because only books so left on the tables or taken to the tables can be counted ; but much valuable work is done by readers in the shape of rapid consultations at the shelves with immediate replacing of the volumes consulted.

Whatever may be his general method, the wise librarian will never limit a reader to one or any number of books at a time. Sometimes a dozen—we have known fifty—books are required to settle a comparatively small point. They are forthcoming in a good reference library. Students of recognized regularity in non-open access libraries should be released from overmuch form-filling ; fifty forms for the fifty books referred to would be intolerable.

464. **The Stock.**—The building-up of a reference stock demands the highest skill and prevision in the librarian. The purpose which it is intended to serve must be clearly before his

eyes, and this may, and does, differ with differing places. A library in a distinctly commercial and industrial area faces needs obviously different from one in a purely residential area. But in all libraries every kind of dictionary and encyclopædia, general and special, philological, technical, scientific and historical, is a prime requisite. On these the stock will be balanced with a view to procuring the best and latest statement of knowledge in every field. This end the too-often neglected bibliographical collection subserves. Every general and special bibliography from the British Museum catalogue to the small select catalogues issued by local libraries, every index, every special catalogue, indeed every catalogue within reason of other libraries which a librarian can procure, is a necessary tool in building up the collection and in tracking information when it is complete. There have been many select bibliographies, but there is still room for many more. The average bibliography of a subject is not selected; it aims at completeness, and seems to assume that its users are people who want to spend a lifetime on the subject. There are such, no doubt, but to the average reader it presents a formidable if not paralyzing array of entries. What is needed, both from experts and from libraries, is a series of brief lists which contain only the best books given in order of their value, comprehensiveness, historical character, and so on. Knowledge of bibliographies and the methods of using them is the chief part of the equipment of the reference librarian.

In this work there are two ideals, as was shown when the general question of book selection was under consideration: one the museum ideal, in which every kind of book of every age is collected; the other which limits the stock to books of proved or probable utility to the population served. The former is the business of the national libraries, and those of the great centres of population, such as Glasgow, Birmingham, Liverpool, Manchester, Bristol, Newcastle, and Nottingham, and to a certain extent those which are distant from such large centres; and special libraries within their own fields should be exhaustive. But this ideal is not for other libraries, except in so far as it applies to the local collection; that should contain everything of whatever value. Otherwise the live book is what is wanted. The ordinary reference library should therefore be revised periodically, obsolete and dead stock should be discarded, and no book should be included because it does not appeal to lending library readers or has been received as a gift

for which there seems to be no other depository—these are emphatically books to be excluded. With these general provisions a brief survey of the principal requirements of the stock may have its uses.

- I. Quick-reference works of every type.
- II. Bibliographies, general and select, and catalogues of every type.
- III. The best editions of the classic authors in every language.
- IV. The most comprehensive compendiums and treatises on every subject.
- V. All material on the predominating local industry.
- VI. All books, pamphlets, and all other literary, pictorial and graphic matter relating to the locality. This will be dealt with more fully in considering the Local Collection.
- VII. Permanent files of at least *The Times*, and all local newspapers; and temporary files of other newspapers most in demand.
- VIII. Sets of periodicals, as indexed in the Library Association *Index of Periodicals*. This is a rather large business, and should be attempted only by libraries that can afford the cost. Others should elect to keep only those of such character as to add permanently to the book-strength of the library. All periodical indexes, whether general, as those of Poole, The Library Association, and The Wilson Company, or particular, as that of *The Times*. The value of these in large libraries is obvious; it is not always so clearly recognized that they have even a greater value for smaller libraries as clues to accessible material which may not be in their stocks. In any case the Library Association index should be taken.
- IX. The publications of the major learned and scientific societies, as the Royal Society, the Royal Geographical, the Historical and similar societies. These present knowledge well in advance of that contained in books as a rule.
- X. Clippings from newspapers and periodicals which have definite facts, in addition to those contained in books, and on current happenings of moment, matters of "useful" character (the day to day changes in rationing rules, etc., during the War were a case in

point) and similar material having an immediate, and real, if transient value. In this connexion Keesing's *Contemporary Archives* may be indicated as a current digest of news and information such as every library requires.

- XI. Government publications, which in most libraries may be selected after a brief interval. Many of the reports of commissions, surveys, etc., have a high permanent value.

This conspectus is not necessarily complete, nor is all the material named of equal value or equally in demand ; but every librarian should review these headings in relation to his reference department. To place rigid limits upon the stock is absurd, seeing that utility and not mathematical or other precision is the object of the work. If, therefore, a librarian finds some other special field of material is demanded he should add it without hesitation if he is convinced that the demand is not frivolous or very restricted. For example, to add an expensive and recondite (say) archæological treatise in Modern Greek at the behest of one reader is a case in which his decision might wisely be for refusal.

465. Classification.—In its classification the reference library presents more physical problems than the lending library. The most minute classification is the best undoubtedly, and this should be used ; but the size problem is a real one. While the greater number of reference books are of octavo size, quartos, folios, and even larger books are many. They cannot stand together in class sequence without an impossible loss of space. The simplest method is to have three sequences, for octavos, quartos and folios respectively, in appropriately sized shelves, in three different parts of the room. But this means various journeys across the room when all the books on a subject are required. The distance is abbreviated if the octavos, quartos and folios follow one another in each class. A third method which has proved successful is to divide every bay (which is presumed to have adjustable shelves) into three parts and to run three parallel sequences in each, the octavos occupying the top part, the quartos the middle, and the folios the bottom. The parallel can be only approximate, but it is sufficiently close for the reader or the staff to review any subject completely and readily. With any of these methods broken order may be resorted to if it is thought well. The arranging

of all quick-reference books in a separate complete sequence nearest the entrance or the place of service is a case in point ; and special separate classifications may well be given to periodicals, to local literature, to the predominating industry, and so on without limit. Again, convenience is the guide.

466. Cataloguing.—The catalogue of the department should aim at the maximum of fullness and be in as many forms as are necessary to bring out the entire resources of the department ; there should be no retrenchment of time or labour in producing the best here, as a small collection of books adequately catalogued will give greater service than a larger one catalogued poorly. It is not an unfair paradox to say that the smaller (within reason) a reference library is the more detailed should be its catalogue. This being so, whatever kind of catalogue may publish the basal stock, the general current needs of the library can be kept supplied only by a card or slip catalogue of unlimited expansibility. The reference catalogue, even for books already in stock, can rarely be complete, and any fixed form of printed catalogue, unless it is supplemented by a MS. catalogue, will soon fail signally as a guide to the collection. As to the cataloguing form, experience proves that a mere author catalogue has a very limited value in reference work. It should be provided, of course, but for one reader who inquires for a book by its author, a score require something about subjects, usually specific subjects such as the Horse, Plastics, Violin Strings, Election Law, Tithes, Date of a Battle, Arms of Sussex, Birthplace of Earl Haig, Words of a Poem, etc. There must therefore be some form of subject catalogue, and there is much virtue in the fully classified card or sheaf catalogue, with author and subject indexes. These, if carried out efficiently and minutely, will do the work that is required. By fullness of entry we mean that titles should be abbreviated as little as is possible within common-sense limits ; that all bibliographical particulars, number of volumes, size, pagination, date, illustrations, maps, diagrams, glossaries, indexes, bibliographies and date and places of publication (except when London) should be indicated. Moreover, annotations of obscure books, and indicating sequences, commentaries, missing parts, and so on, are of special value here. Added entries may, and should, be carried as far as the cataloguing resources of the library allow, within reason ; all composite books, miscellaneous works and transactions, which are not analysed in accessible published indexes, should be analysed in the catalogue under

their class headings. It is also most useful to collect in the catalogue references to bibliographies of all kinds contained in works which are in the lending library. For examples, the Home University Library and the Cambridge Manuals of Science and Literature are not books to be found in the average reference library, but they contain excellent little select bibliographies which the reference librarian will find useful, and an entry of each of these should be made. Every item which goes into the library should be catalogued, including pamphlets and excerpts from other works, however small, if it is intended to be preserved, as well as maps. Photographs and prints probably need a separate catalogue, as certain considerations, dealt with later on, enter into their cataloguing, but in a card catalogue provision can be made for nearly every kind of material. Temporary material may be entered on a coloured card, which permits of rapid revision of the entries.

467. Pamphlets.—Pamphlets and magazine excerpts form a large part of every reference library and are often difficult to deal with effectively. When not bound in volumes, they may be stitched in manila wrappers, and stored in boxes of various sizes, such as 8vo, 4to, etc., of the kind specified in Section 356. Each pamphlet should be lettered on the side of its wrapper, with its author, title, date, class letter and number and accession number. The collection might be commenced with an 8vo box for each class, and gradually extended from this nucleus as the stock increased, the contents of boxes being divided and subdivided, and placed in new boxes with changed lettering. As these would be arranged in class order, there would be no more difficulty in finding a single pamphlet than in finding a book. With miscellaneous collections of pamphlets bound in volumes, the best plan is to renumber them in a progressive series, and carry the volume number against the catalogue or other entry. It is not advisable to run more than one series of numbers, and if by chance a collection is acquired which is already numbered, these should be covered over with the continuation numbers of the library's own progressive series.

468. On the whole, however, it is better not to bind pamphlets, partly owing to their miscellaneous nature, which prevents any real classification or even approximate subject order in the volumes composed of them, partly because of their very temporary value as a rule and because of the impossibility of inserting new ones into bound volumes. A student or discoverer frequently advances his first conclusions in a pamphlet,

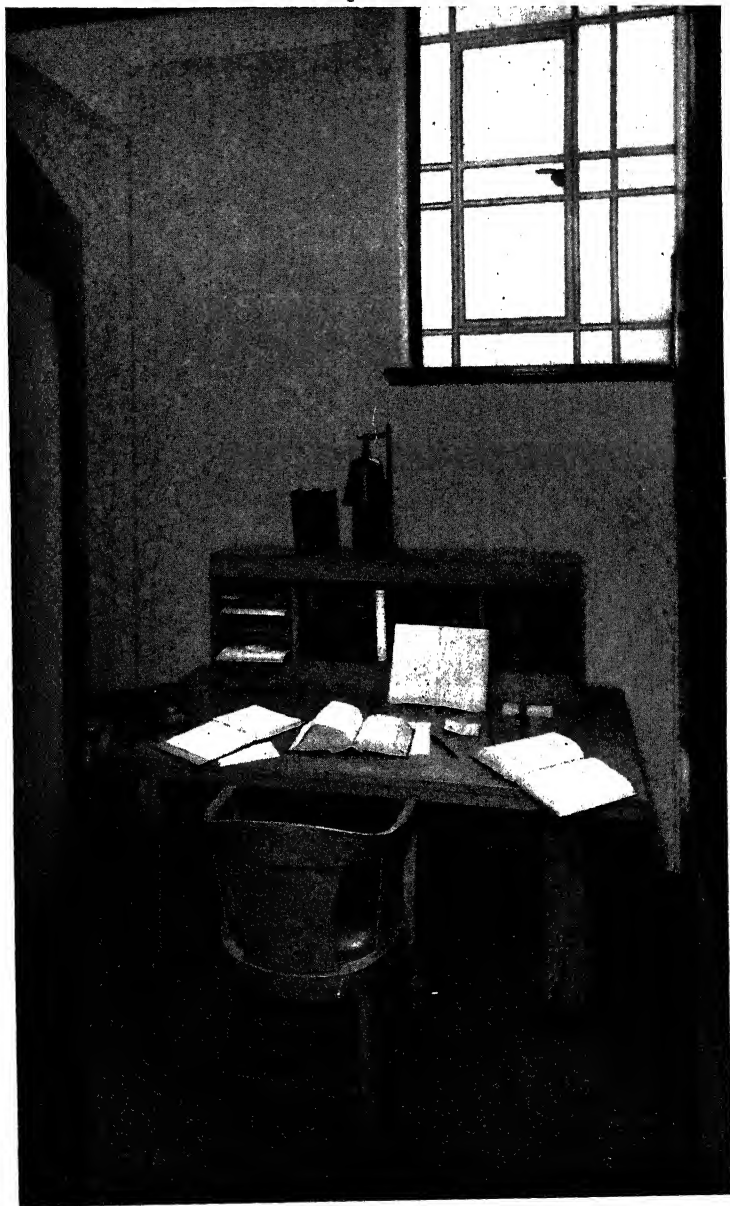


FIG. 190.—A Carrel, or Student's Cubicle, at Sheffield Central Library, for the use of individual readers pursuing special studies (Sections 469-476).

and sooner or later these are superseded by books, and many pamphlets are merely statements of views upon political and other questions of much immediate but usually quite passing interest. In the average library they become dead stock in a few months or years. Pamphlet collections should be weeded out more frequently than book collections. The vertical file is the most adequate method of dealing with pamphlets. It is also the most effective method of filing cuttings, broadsides and similar separate matter. If the folders are closely classified, the ordinary printed index to the classification scheme used is a fairly good key ; but a slip index of some kind will exhaust the file better and accelerate reference. If a brief index entry is made before the cutting is dropped into its folder, in some such form as shown in Fig. 191, the work will not be unduly burdensome.

ATLANTIC FLIGHT.

U.S. Seaplane, NC4, flies to Lisbon.

D. Chron., 28.5.19-1. 629.

FIG. 191.—Clippings-index Slip (Section 468).

469. Accessories.—Every means of comfort and every reasonable aid to study should be given to readers. We have dealt with reading tables. The chairs deserve almost equal consideration. They should be comfortable ; an arm-chair is better than other forms, and one with a padded leather or rexine seat better than one without. The view at one time expressed that seats without backs in some way induced to mental alertness was that of some stupid theorist ; as a matter of fact ease of body is essential to elasticity of mind. Chairs should have rubber tips or silent castors to prevent the nerve-racking scritch which moving chairs too frequently make, but when metal castors are used they should not be of the slippery variety that slides readers unexpectedly on to the floor. Reading stands with clips for holding books open should be on every table, or provided in sufficient numbers to meet all probable needs. At certain tables the use of ink should be permitted, and blotting pads, ink, pens, etc., should be provided, Tracing may be permitted from most illustrated books, prints, etc., but as a protection a sheet of xylonite should be available and the reader be required to interpose it between the copy and

his tracing paper. Sheets in several sizes should be kept for use with books of different sizes. Rulers, T squares, a map measurer, a reading glass, compasses, etc., may all reasonably form part of the equipment and be lent on request. Scrap paper for notes, both at the catalogues and at the tables, is another reasonable provision, as is a small stock of foolscap and other writing paper which readers may purchase at cost price. Some libraries have the rule that letters must not be written in the room, and that other books than those from the shelves must not be read there. It has its uses, as cases are not unknown where nomadic business men, election agents, football pool fans, cross-word enthusiasts and other persons have monopolized tables for hours or days for distinctly non-literary and non-library purposes. The writing of occasional correspondence, if it does not exclude other readers from the writing tables, may safely be not seen! As for the reading of books not belonging to the department, the purpose of the rule forbidding it, is to prevent the monopoly of much needed space by people who bring in newspapers or current novels; it is not intended to prevent comparative reading—which would be absurd. It may not be superfluous to add that the reference library should be equipped with a stand for hats, coats and umbrellas, but readers may be warned by notice that the library does not accept responsibility for their safety.

All the forces of the library stock in all departments should be at the disposal of the reference reader; thus any book in the lending libraries which may be on the shelves, should be allowed to be requisitioned, as also should any newspaper, periodical or other material in files which may not form part of the department. A good plan in open access libraries is to give the reference reader a pass admitting him to consult the lending library catalogues or shelves, but after he has selected books from them to have them brought from the lending library by the staff. Such uses of lending library books should count in statistics as reference consultations.

470. The Lending of Reference Books.—Whether or not reference library books should ever be lent away from the building is a question upon which librarians are sharply divided. The great reference libraries rarely lend any but duplicates. It is argued that a reference library is a place where a reader has a right to expect every book in stock to be available at all times, and this is a reasonable theory. That reader, however, is, so far as the average library is concerned,

a hypothetical person as a rule, and too rigid a policy of refusal has some disadvantages. Experience tells every librarian what books ought not to be lent in ordinary circumstances, if in any ; and these are quick-reference books of all kinds, and any book the loss of or damage to which would be irreparable. Occasionally, however, a real student really requires the home use of a reference book which is not in everyday demand, and the library would suffer little and might gain much by lending it. If the ordinary loan periods are thought to be inadmissible, much can be said for lending over week-ends or at hours when the library is inaccessible to readers. It is a question which every librarian must settle for himself and flexibility of method is always to be cultivated. In one successful reference library which lends, when a reasonable cause is shown, every book not excluded by the exceptions just named, and has done so for twenty years without inconvenience, a form of application, which is also a charging form, is used. This is a card 6 inches \times 5 inches, which folds in the middle and files as a standard-sized catalogue card (3 inches \times 5 inches) :

Purpose wanted for.....

Why Book cannot be studied in Library.....

(Do not write below this line.) (See inside.)

Allowed to be returned within.....days.

(Signed).....*Chief Librarian.*

If application is not signed request is disallowed, in which case explanation is enclosed.

—————(Fold)

Date

APPLICATION FOR BORROWING A REFERENCE BOOK FOR HOME
READING. [See Special Notice inside before filling up.]

Name

Address

Occupation

Book Required : Author

Title (brief)

Class No...... *Time required*.....

(Do not write below this line.) (See over.)

Issued.....*by*..... *Rtd.*.....*by*.....

FIG. 192.—Application for Loan of Reference Book (Section 470).

One side of it is worded as shown above, and the other side, to which the attention of the applicant is specially directed, is worded as follows :

SPECIAL NOTICE.

As every book removed from the Reference shelves may mean inconvenience and disappointment to some other reader, *a reasonable case must be made out for permitting it to be taken away*. Such a vague indication as "reading" is not sufficient. Quick-reference books, such as encyclopædias and dictionaries, very expensive or rare books, and books in constant demand, will not be issued under this regulation.

The applicant must be a resident in the Borough, and if not of some standing or sufficiently known to the Librarian or his Staff, should be prepared with some recommendation from a clergyman, head teacher, or other person of standing in the Borough. Should the application be granted, *failure to return the book within the time allowed* may entail the refusal of all further applications.

FIG. 193.—Application for Loan of Reference Book (back) (Section 470).

When the applicant is unknown to the staff and the conditions required in the last paragraph on the form are not fulfilled, a separate slip is handed to the applicant, which reads as follows :

Re APPLICATION FOR BORROWING A REFERENCE BOOK FOR HOME
READING.

The Librarian regrets that he is unable to accede to the accompanying request without a signed recommendation from a clergyman, head teacher, or other person of standing in the Borough.

Every facility, however, will be accorded for consulting the book in the building. The Reference Library is open each week day from 9.30 a.m. to 9 p.m.

FIG. 194.—Refusal Form : Loan of Reference Book (Section 470).

When the book is unsuitable for lending purposes another slip is used :

Re APPLICATION FOR BORROWING A REFERENCE BOOK FOR HOME
READING.

The Librarian regrets that he is unable to accede to the accompanying request, as the book applied for—

	a quick-reference book ;
	very expensive ;
is	rare ;
	in constant demand.

Every facility will be accorded for consulting the book in the building. The Reference Library is open each week day from 9.30 a.m. to 9 p.m.

FIG. 195.—Form showing Reason for Refusal (Section 470).

The application forms, when completed and allowed, are filed alphabetically under the name of the borrower. There are so few of them that any other form of charging has been found to be unnecessary. The assistant concerned in the work examines the file weekly, and books overdue are written for immediately. Borrowers guilty of retaining reference books beyond the allowed time are denied the privilege of borrowing thereafter.

471. Staff.—It is fair to say that there are too few reference librarians in this country; that is to say, persons who, in addition to ordinary scholarship and library technique, have trained specially in bibliography, the drawing out of readers and information-hunting. They are increasing, however, as a result of recent advances in professional training. The staffing of the reference library is perhaps the greatest difficulty a librarian has to overcome. In the larger libraries the department is in the control of experts, or at any rate of the most efficient workers on the staff, but in smaller towns it falls to the keeping of an assistant, often a different person every day or even shift, who can be spared from the general staff; indeed, in some libraries reference work is so small that this is all that can be afforded. In such circumstances the best work is out of the question. The reference reader demands skilled attention. Libraries catering for a learned or special clientele have their own problems; but the ordinary civic library has, in addition to numbers of such clients, the average man and woman to deal with who are not only unskilled in the use of books, but have also some difficulty in making known their actual needs. It is obviously beyond the power of a boy or girl assistant to draw out of these readers the exact nature of their difficulties; that is a task requiring address, sympathy and tact, which experience alone gives; to such an extent is this so that, as the Public Libraries Report suggests, it is almost a special branch of psychology. In small libraries the librarian himself considers it a privilege to work in this department; it is well worth his while. The qualifications a reference librarian should aim to possess are a complete library technique, an intimate knowledge of the sources of information and of his stock, and a certain missionary spirit which loves knowledge for its own sake. In addition he must have sympathy with all classes of inquirers and be able to suffer fools gladly. On the technical side he will find in certain books a good elementary grounding; among them are Warner's *Reference Library Methods*, Wycer's *Reference Work*, Hopkins's *Reference Guides*, and so on. No question

put by readers should be regarded as trivial ; it is no part of the librarian's duty to assess the value of any information asked ; and patience even beyond what may seem reasonable limits is an everyday requirement. For example, the question once asked, " On which side of Cromwell's nose was there a wart ? " seemed frivolous enough, and it involved the consulting of dozens of books ; but it proved to be wanted for the identification of what is believed to be a unique death mask.

472. Records.—All information the sources of which were not obvious should be recorded on cards, together with the sources from which it was given, in order that similar search may not be necessary when it is required again. Carbon copies of all special lists of books compiled should be filed for future use. When a reference library cannot supply information from its own resources, it should endeavour to find what neighbouring library can supply it, and either direct the inquirer there, or, better, borrow the book required. Mutual co-operation of this kind between libraries is easy to arrange, and few librarians do not recognize its value. It should always be borne in mind that to turn a reader away empty is a loss of prestige to the library, while a reader well served and satisfied is a potential friend and probable patron afterwards. Failures of the library are most important as showing deficiencies in the collection, and questions which could not be answered should always be recorded.

473. Special Library Collections.—In the average town it should be the endeavour to concentrate all the special libraries of institutions and societies in the reference library. It is obviously an uneconomy for special collections to be locked up for the greater part of the week in the private rooms of institutions and societies when they may be made available all day and every day to the members of these societies and to the general public in the municipal reference library. These bodies may often be induced to deposit their collection if some simple arrangement is made by which books may be lent as required to their members and may be available to everybody for reference purpose when not so lent out. By this means a useful reinforcement of the stock is made at the expense of shelf-room and administration only. It is usual to catalogue such collections exactly as other parts of the stock, but to add some special symbol to the class-mark to show its ownership.

474. Information Bureaux.—Among the many possibilities of the department we shall confine ourselves in this chapter

to its use as an information bureau, leaving such important considerations as the Local Collection, and its auxiliaries Regional and Photographic Surveys and Commercial Libraries for separate treatment later. The information desk or bureau is the name given to the department of the work in towns which have no separate commercial and technical library departments which lays itself out to answer inquiries for business and other people. It is primarily quick-reference work and is done in proximity to the quick-reference collection. But it goes farther in the direction of supplying such current information as the present population of the town, its rates, and the addresses of burgesses, the latest Derby winner, the cable code used by this or that firm, the plays available at the theatres, the social or other events of this, next or last week, and indeed any useful or convenient information whatsoever. Much of the material needed is in the quick-reference collection, much must be clipped from the newspapers, and some—as, for example, the programmes of local societies—must be sought for at first-hand. It may be objected that this information may, to an extent, be found in newspapers by the inquirers themselves. Admitted; but they have not always the required newspaper at hand, and the information bureau is always there. Briefly indexed vertical files, within hand-reach of a public telephone, are the means of working such bureaux. The telephone is essential to real success, and inquiries by telephone should be invited. Where there are commercial libraries in connexion with the library system, much of this work may be done in them, but there is, as the examples given above show, a large amount of work that can be done outside their field; and a ready and efficient information bureau is a real asset to any town.

475. Indexes of Readers.—Another useful work that in large libraries may properly be relegated to the cataloguing department may be conducted in smaller ones by the reference staff. This is the supplying of firms and individuals with lists of books of use in connexion with their industry or study. Some libraries supply such people with a small card catalogue of the whole of their subject as it is represented in the libraries, and send cards regularly for entries of additions. Other forms of catalogues can be used, of course, for this purpose. It has already been suggested in Section 454 that it is a good plan to make card entries of the special subjects affected by individual readers under the names of the subjects, and to advise the readers by postcards of all additions made in those subjects.

The work of the Readers' Adviser is very closely akin to and should be co-operative with the work of the reference librarian (see Section 455).

476.—Modern science has in several ways come to the aid of the librarian. Reference has been made already to the talking book (Section 250) as a means of serving the sightless reader. In many reference libraries there are documents of unique character, the handling of which cannot be allowed save under the most stringent safeguards; and most students can be adequately served by an exact photographic facsimile. THE PHOTOSTAT, which is installed in the British Museum and in the Birmingham and other libraries, produces these facsimiles at a very small cost, and so enables earnest students to buy them. They can also be obtained commercially. It is advisable for a reference library to obtain photostat copies not only of its own rarities but also of rare documents housed in other places which have an interest for its readers. РЕСТОФОР is a simple, portable photographic reproducer which does similar work quite inexpensively (91 Petty France, London, S.W. 1).

The MICRO-FILM is another blessing which permits the reproduction on minute films which can be held in small compass of whole sheets of newspapers or other documents, which, being placed in a simple portable projector can be read as easily as the original. It is possible that sooner or later collections of these films will supersede the files of newspapers now preserved and so enormous space will be saved. It is obvious, too, that it is much easier to lend films than bound volumes.

The evaluation of documents from the physical point of view and the detection of fraudulent ones is now scientifically possible thanks to recent work in FLUORESCENCE ANALYSIS. By this means, for example, the original text underlying a palimpsest can be brought to the surface. The process is at present expensive and must be carried out by experts in the laboratory, but the librarian may find many of the applications of fluorescence analysis of value.

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(This and the Manchester Illustrated Record (below) give excellent photographs.)

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For articles see Cannons : T, the Reference Department ; U, Special Collections in Libraries, and Library Literature under these headings. All the great national libraries, which are nearly all reference libraries, issue handbooks on their methods, or such books exist on them, and these offer suggestions of value to the general library student.

CHAPTER XXVIII

LOCAL COLLECTIONS

478. General.—Of the departments of reference, other than the general working department, prior consideration may be given to the Local Collection on the ground that every public library must have a collection of this kind. At any rate it should have as complete a collection as possible of material relating to its town. County collections are a much more serious matter and should only be attempted by towns of county rank, or the town in each county where the majority of the population is. There is hardly a county in England which can support two county collections, because rival collections are mutually inimical, and their competition for certain items causes the price of the latter to increase absurdly. Whether in the course of time the county library systems will undertake such collections or not will probably depend upon the facilities they may be able to provide for the consultation, copying, and transmission, as well, of course, as the preservation of the material. The town is another matter. The one place where copies of books, pamphlets, photographs, etc., relating to a town ought to be found is its public library; and there are several principles, warnings and suggestions that may be enunciated in connexion with the work. The relative value of the material to be collected is hardly a matter for the librarian; often most despised material has great value when brought into relation to other material. The best general principle is: “Get everything and leave its evaluation to posterity.”

479. Material Collected.—Primarily the words local collection are co-extensive with local bibliography. This last term, however, is too narrow, and the broad headings embraced by the collection may be set out, and then considered in detail. These are:

- (a) Printed records.
- (b) Written records.
- (c) Pictorial records.
- (d) Engraved records.

All or most of these are found in every local collection, and their statement immediately raises the question : Can pictorial records, although undoubtedly a part of local history, come into the province of the library ? Are they not rather in that of the art gallery ? Similarly, are not engraved records (bronze coins, tokens, rubbings of monumental brasses and seals) better placed in the museum ? It may be urged that the art gallery is concerned with art, the museum with science, and the library (in this connexion) with history. Pictures and engraved articles are not collected by the librarian because of their artistic qualities—in fact, many of his most cherished possessions are “artistic atrocities”—but because they are records. On this argument a good case can be made for their retention in the library. No doubt, where a town has the three institutions named, and where the local collecting spirit is at work in each, and is definitely co-ordinated, it would be wise and economical to sub-divide the field ; but where there is only the library, there can be only one principle, and that the one already emphasized—“get everything.”

480. When we come to consider the printed records of any locality, we are surprised at their extent. These, again, can be set out in a brief tabular form :

A. Books *of* the locality.

1. By local authors.
2. Locally printed.
3. Newspapers and periodicals.
4. Public material : parliamentary, legal, etc.
5. Public material : municipal.
6. Trade material.
7. Programmes : theatre, cinema, music hall, concert hall, etc.
8. Posters.

B. Books *on* the locality.

1. Topography.
2. History.
3. Biography.
4. Public material : parliamentary, legal, etc.
5. Novels, poems, and plays with local setting.
6. Newspaper and periodical references.

These headings cover a wide area, but the presence of every form of material named is desirable in the local collection.

481. For the purposes of the local collection an author may be defined as :—1, a writer who is born, and educated in whole or part, in a town, or whose family is indigenous in it ; 2, residents of some years' standing or whose works reflect the locality ; 3, authors of utterances or writings made in, or upon, or addressed to the locality ; 4, public men, officials, etc. ; 5, any minister, public speaker, etc., who holds office or meetings in the town ; 6, all local bodies, public or private—the municipality, churches, societies, clubs, etc. ; and 7, all local tradesmen—catalogues, etc.

It is a prime duty of every public library to collect locally printed books ; the *lacunæ* in our national bibliography have been lamentable in the past in regard to locally and privately printed books, owing to the lack of such collecting, and they are not likely to decrease if this duty is not vigorously undertaken by the librarian of to-day. The search must be specially eager for the privately issued volume, but however limited the author intends his circulation to be, he is usually quite persuadable as far as a copy for the local collection goes. Local newspapers, it is obvious, are material of cardinal value. Every one of them must be collected, bound, and to some extent indexed. And similar if somewhat lesser value attaches to every periodical whatsoever—be it the issue of a sect, school, institution, trader, party, club, or any other body—published in the town. It is a curious fact that few libraries possess, for instance, sets of the various church magazines. These are, usually, of course, made up of a London-published religious periodical inset in sheets dealing with the particular church that distributes them. The inset may be discarded, but the local part should certainly be collected from every such periodical issued locally. Few records are more important than this.

The local collection must certainly include all local acts, bye-laws, orders in Council that have a local bearing. It is remarkable how many of these there are for even supposedly insignificant areas.

Novels and other imaginative literature, which have a local setting, come clearly into the collection. It is a curious fact that the modern novel of this character is frequently missed. It seems all the more important to collect it when we know that the average "selling life" of a modern novel is about six weeks, and its public life quite often not much longer. Only the local library can—or ought—to save much of this fiction and imaginative writing.

References to the district in outside newspapers and periodicals should be kept. Even when they are founded on the material in the local newspapers they are usually coloured by the outside view, or are in better perspective than the local writer can bring to bear upon whatever is under discussion.

482. The basic records of a town, and, therefore, from the point of view of the local collection, its most important, are its written ones ; and in these, generally speaking, libraries are most deficient, for the obvious reason that the ordinary municipal library is a newcomer, and that in modern days the printed record has largely superseded the written one. Not altogether, however, as we shall see. Written records are almost of as many types as are the printed—there are parliamentary, municipal, parochial, private business and personal manuscripts, of which every librarian should strive to obtain possession. A copy of the Domesday Book for his area, albeit impossible, except by successful burglary of the Public Record Office, would be a desirable beginning to the collection. After that, we may tabulate a list of the classes of written material which should be sought :

1. Parochial Records Tithe Registers, Parish Registers, Rate Books.
2. Municipal Records Rate Books, Assessment Registers, Minute Books.
3. Private business records : Manorial Court Rolls and documents, leases, indentures, agreements.
4. Manuscripts, autographs, etc.

Parochial registers of all kinds, tax books, etc., were until comparatively recent years kept in the charge of the Church. Modern vicars have, as a rule, little interest in them, and are often willing to hand them over to the public library. Such books have an obvious value in resolving the whereabouts, rateable value and occupants of various types of property ; and very interesting questions may be settled by their means. The actual parish registers—of births, marriages and deaths—are another matter, and the originals cannot, we believe, be transferred to the library. In some cases the staffs of libraries have obtained permission to transcribe these verbatim, and have actually done so.¹ It is undoubtedly a useful work, but scarcely comes into the province of the librarian as such ; his work is to collect existing material, not to create material,

¹ At Walthamstow this was done by a member of the Libraries staff.

although there are infrequent exceptions to the rule. In general we must wait until one of the publishing societies produces these registers, and in the meanwhile refer inquirers to the Church. All we need to emphasize here is the fact that for centuries the corporate life centred in the Church, and it is to the Church that we must look for our primary written records.

We reach somewhat surer ground when we endeavour to collect municipal records. The older municipalities—Coventry, Stratford-on-Avon, etc.—have had some regard for their records, and have at least preserved them. Modern municipalities preserve them, too—that is to say, theoretically. A visit to the basement or attics of the average municipal building is, however, a woeful experience for the collector. Usually, in cob-webbed chaos, he will find the records that in a century (or much less) will have immeasurable interest for the student of local affairs. There are written minutes as distinct from printed ones of municipal committees, rate, assessment, receipt, wages, work, and numerous other books to be found in the confusion. It is not always easy to persuade the people concerned to hand over these books, and indeed the more recent of them probably ought not to be handed over; but a little persuasive tact has in more than one case secured the right of the librarian to take charge of and to classify and catalogue them. Sometimes limitations are placed upon their use (for example, books of the last ten years may not be exposed to general consultation), but in any case they ought to be secured for the collection if it is in any way possible. The records, it must be mentioned, are voluminous and bulky, and if in addition to the right of custody the municipality can be induced to provide a room for their reception, the relief will generally be a welcome one.

In some ways the most attractive of written records, the most human, are the private ones; and these are also the most difficult to obtain. The Master of the Rolls is much interested in the preservation, where they can be consulted, of manorial and similar documents now that they have no longer a "solicitor's value"; he has designated on certain quite practical conditions, several libraries and other institutions as public depositories for them; and librarians should in this matter be in touch with the British Records Association, and especially with its Records Preservation Section, at 2, Stone Buildings, Lincoln's Inn, W.C.2, through which such designations are made. Leases, wills, agreements, indentures, and similar

deeds are naturally not stored systematically anywhere in the average town, and they must be searched out. Old inns are likely places, as are old solicitor's offices, and auctions sometimes bring them to light. There are, of course, dealers who specialize in them, and most desirable deeds have been obtained cheaply from London dealers. Such documents throw more light on the changes, customs, and languages of a locality than do any of the more formal records mentioned above.

Local literary manuscripts, autographs, manuscripts of local authors, letters, and similar written documents are so obviously desirable that more than a mention of them is superfluous; but we want, in this connexion, to urge that to-day will quickly belong to the past, and that the collection of these things from the hands of living men is to be desired. When a librarian receives a letter from the mayor, a prominent alderman, or similar local celebrity, he does not as a rule think of it as something to be preserved in the local collection. Why not?

483. Pictorial and Graphic Material.—In recent years librarians have given systematic attention to the collection of graphic records, although, indeed, they have long been recognized as a part of the collector's province. These naturally divide into :

- | | |
|---------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Painted records. | 3. Photographs. |
| 2. Prints. | 4. Maps. |

The presence of painted records may be questioned, but their value as records is undoubted, seeing that they give colour, atmosphere, and have other interpretative values which are absent from the more meticulously accurate photograph. Local prints and photographs should be collected without special regard to their artistic value; record is always the motto of the collector, not beauty, however much we may desire it personally. Care should be taken to secure photographs in a permanent process, but it is better to have them in the more evanescent processes, and to take special care of them, than not to have them at all. All properly fixed and washed gas-light photographic prints (i.e., those on bromide and velox papers) are practically permanent; but the finest photographic paper extant will not endure direct sunlight for long. The treatment of prints and photographs generally, however, is a special subject, and here we are concerned only with what should be collected. The pictures, then, must represent distinctive things, interpretative of the life of the district. Pictures of individual

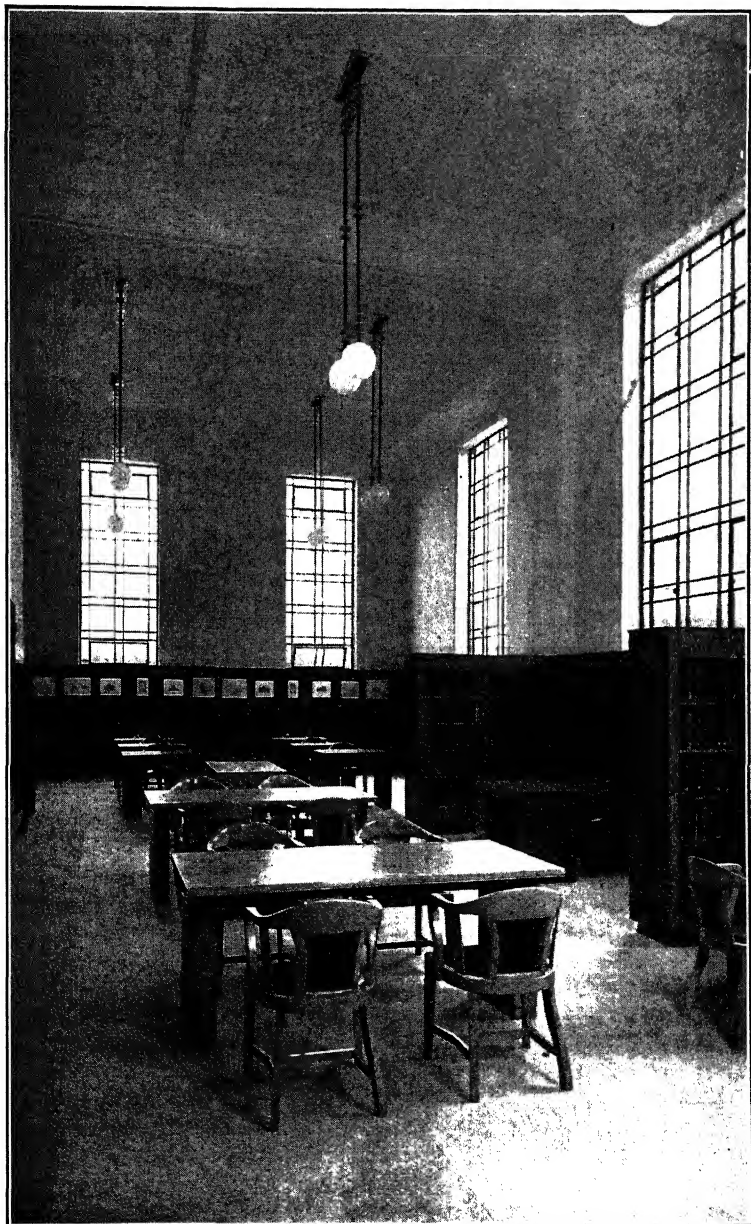


FIG. 196.—The Sheffield Collection Room, Central Library, Sheffield (Chapter XVIII).

flowers, which grow anywhere, trees which are not peculiar to the locality; "pretty bits" which might be matched in any place in the kingdom, are of little or no value. Omitting these inessential things, practically everything else from the portrait of the Member of Parliament to that of the local amceba comes within the scope of the collection. The cheapest print from the cheapest periodical need not be despised. It may serve its turn.

484. Special endeavour should be made to secure a complete set of the maps of the region covered. In spite of the conventionality and inaccuracy of many early maps they are our original source of information on many points vital to the collection. For some counties the maps have been scheduled with exemplary thoroughness, and by basing his collection on one of these schedules the collector will be helped greatly, seeing that the old cartographers usually worked on several counties, and the map bibliography of Yorkshire, for example, may be expected to furnish useful clues to the maps of Kent. Old gazetteers, topographies, histories, encyclopædias and periodicals of general scope often contain maps, and the least prepossessing of such works should be consulted in order to obtain them.

485. Engraved records are fewer than any previously mentioned. They include local seals, crests, coins and tokens, and similar articles. Tokens, it may not be generally known, were coins, usually having the values of a farthing, a halfpenny, and a penny, which local traders were permitted to issue to supply the scarcity of a small coinage from the national treasury. These were issued mainly from the sixteenth to the eighteenth centuries and generally had a local exchange value only, although a number were accepted in many counties. Clearly these tokens, which often carry the trade marks, signs, etc., of the trader issuing them, are a valuable and interesting part of local material. The Coventry Public Libraries possess what we believe to be a unique collection of tokens relating to that city. Various local medals should also be sought.

486. Sources of Supply.—The discussion of the methods of obtaining books for the local collection must be rather trite and unoriginal, but perhaps something useful may emerge from a recapitulation of the principal ones. The common method must be by purchase, although much will be secured from private generosity when the collection has become known. It is useful to mention the collection in the annual estimates ;

a definite appropriation should be made for it, the amount of which will of course depend upon the resources of the library and upon the area covered. At Croydon, where the collection covers extra-metropolitan Surrey, it is found that much may be done on an appropriation of £50 a year. This need not be spent entirely upon the collection, nor should the collection be limited to the purchasing power of this sum, but it seems to be desirable to have money ear-marked in order that attention may be focussed upon the collection as an important part of the activities of the library.

It is essential, if the collection is to be successful, that the librarian should have discretionary power in the spending of the appropriation. Local literature disappears with a rapidity that is sometimes astonishing, and keen collectors, on making discoveries in the catalogues of booksellers and dealers, usually secure the coveted books by telephone or telegram. The library would be a greatly handicapped competitor if the sanction of the libraries committee had to be awaited before purchases could be made. In some towns the discretionary power is vested in the chairman, and where he is immediately accessible to the librarian there are distinct advantages in this method, especially if he is sympathetic. It is a good axiom for the librarian to avoid responsibilities which can judiciously be distributed !

A certain amount of advertisement of the needs of the library in this matter is recommended. A note to the effect that local material is purchased should appear in Clegg's *Directory of Booksellers*, and in other similar publications. On the notepaper of the library some such note as the following might be given in small type : "The librarian will be glad to hear of written or printed material relating to Selsey, either as a gift or for purchase." This is especially useful, as the notepaper circulates mostly in the district itself, where many things may be hidden, unvalued and neglected, which its owners would willingly add to the collection. With the directory entry before him the bookseller will generally report individual items, but in any case he will send his catalogues, and these must be perused diligently. As a rule the bookseller is sufficiently master of his business to enter likely material under county and town headings, but not infrequently books which have a local appeal appear in other parts of the catalogue. In this work the librarian will naturally and wisely make use of his whole staff, and every inducement should be held out

to assistants to help in the discovering of local material and to make suggestions for the extension of the collection. Generally, however, little inducement will be needed, as library workers as a whole are both keenly interested in and proud of the local collection.

Other sources of supply may be dealt with briefly. Gifts will account for many of the most curious and useful, and these are best induced by exhibitions of material from the collection, by references made to the collection in books in the lending library (a slip can be inserted in all topographical books, for example, calling attention to the existence and scope of the collection), and by paragraphs, articles, etc., built up from local material, which may be contributed to local newspapers and magazines.

487. Photographic Surveys.—The current pictorial records, the photographs, can usually be obtained, by the expense of much energy and little money, through a Photographic Survey Society. As this matter has received systematic and authoritative treatment,¹ it is unnecessary here to enlarge upon it further than to say that a photographic survey society is usually a band of photographers, professional and (mainly) amateur, who make photographic records in a systematic manner of a particular district, its history, antiquities, natural features, architecture, industries, current activities, and, in fact, everything that presents or interprets its life. Such societies are increasing in number, and have a social side in the shape of photographic excursions, reunions, etc., which make them rather more than gatherings where the cacophonous jargon of the dark-room pervades everything; hence they band together many people who are interested in a district and the preservation of its memories. As a rule the whole of the work of the survey, except the cataloguing and classifying—which are the business of the librarian—is done by members of the survey. The library usually supplies mounts, storage and cataloguing requisites.

488. Regional Surveys.—Similarly, but more recently, regional (or civic) survey societies have come into existence, which parcel out certain local areas, and study everything in them, from their geology to the last manifestations of the human intellect working in them, and record the results on maps.²

¹ Gower, H. D., Jast, L. S., and Topley, W. W. *The Camera as Historian: A Handbook to Photographic Record Work.* 1916. Sampson Low.

² See *Library World*, vol. xix, pp. 32-34.

Thus maps of the local strata, water-bearing beds, flora, rainfall, industries, old inns, milestones, boundary marks, and so on, have been made for the circle of twenty miles, centering in Croydon. This is a new form of work of the utmost value for providing data of current utility, and for preserving the record of local features. Such societies are already recognizing that the municipal reference library is the natural storing-place of such material.

489. Cost.—Naturally the most important factor in collecting is the price of the material collected. This, not remarkably, often gives us considerable pause, as the present-day cost of local literature does not seem to bear any relation to its original cost; and to appraise the value of manuscript material, deeds and similar matter, is almost impossible. Scarcity and competition are the two factors in creating prices. In local literature the demand can be controlled if librarians do not traverse other fields than their own district in making their collection. A little consultation with brother librarians should bring about a workable division of any given county, with the result that the individual collection would be satisfactory, and the duplication of effort and expense would be avoided. Moreover, this avoidance of competition would lessen the demand for the same book, and so help to bring down its market value. The competitor who can completely outdistance the average library is the keen private collector with a generous purse and unlimited leisure. In his case the librarian can only hope that his will contains a clause in which his collection and the library are in happy juxtaposition. In actual buying, it is a counsel of perfection never to purchase anything except "on approval," because commonplace and almost valueless items can appear most attractively in an agent's catalogue. But while few booksellers refuse to send ordinary items for examination, in a keen market they cannot always afford to do so, and for rare, known items an order by wire (followed by the official order) is the only safe way of securing what is wanted. Where "on approval" privileges can be obtained, they are often useful; by means of them large bundles of stuff which have only a nucleus of useful matter can be weeded out, and the price arranged according to the result. This is particularly desirable when dealing with deeds, which often prove to be incomplete, or of far less interest than (say) the entry, "Forty Surrey Deeds, 1542-1816," would imply. One does not suppose that dealers in these things are one whit less honest than other

men, but their prices are often in the region of the absurd. If the collector has reason to think that this is so, he should make a reasonable offer for the books he wants, and it will generally be found that the bookseller is amenable to this sort of argument. Naturally we are speaking of the general items for the collection. In every district individual items have a definite high value which cannot be reduced, and it is the lot of most local collectors to be compelled regretfully to pass by, as beyond their means, many things that they would gladly possess.

490. Mounting of Prints, Etc.—It remains to devote some attention to the mounting, cataloguing and storage of material. Books and pamphlets are treated as in the general library, as are broadsides, cuttings and similar separate material. The photograph may be treated in various ways. At Birmingham, for example, the prints are mounted, and stored in what are virtually loose-leaf albums, which permit perfect classification and the insertion of any new photographs without dislocation. The more usual method is to mount the photographs on a uniform size mount—17 in. by 13½ in. for large prints, and 12½ in. by 10½ in. for smaller (and the great majority of) prints have been found satisfactory. Nature papers of double strength have been used, and every effort should be made to secure an acid-free paper. When it is obtained the prints should be fixed by the dry-mounting process, if possible; nearly all adhesives have injurious chemical action upon photographic papers. The mounted prints and photographs are stored in boxes such as that shown in Fig. 137, or in the drawers of a veritcal file.

491. Classification.—The arranging of the local collection demands a much closer classification than any general scheme provides. Up to the present most librarians have constructed one for their own use; and there are two methods. One, and that most readily used, is a topographical arrangement with a subject sub-arrangement; the other is the converse—a subject arrangement with topographical sub-division. The choice may be determined by the answer the reader gives to the question: Which are users more likely to want—

1. The churches of a county or town as a whole? or
2. Material, including the church, relating to a town (in a county) or parish or ward (in a town)?

The topographical arrangement of (say) a county survey is

usually secured by adding to the subject number the number of the square on the key Ordnance Survey map of the county. That is, when the main arrangement is subjectival. When it

THE PHOTOGRAPHIC SURVEY AND RECORD OF SURVEY. Slip to accompany prints and lantern slides. It is requested that you will fill in the required particulars on this slip and forward it and your print or lantern slide to the Hon. Survey Sec., Mr. H. D. GOWER, 55, Benson Road, Croydon.		Access to Collection. The Collection is permanently housed at the Public Library, Town Hall, Croydon, under regulations making it accessible to the public. Copyright. —The Copyright of a photograph remains the property of the contributor, unless specially ceded to the Association.	
CLASS NO.*	LOCALITY	No. of 6 in. Ord. mp. & sheet	SUBJECT
SIZE PROCESS plate		DATE PHOTOGRAPHED	TIME a.m. p.m.
DESCRIPTION		*COMPASS POINT DATE RECEIVED *	
NAME AND ADDRESS OF CONTRIBUTOR		MEMBER OF THE FOLLOWING AFFILIATED SOCIETY	
Use one form for each print. Write clearly. PHOTOGRAPHIC SURVEY AND RECORD OF SURVEY.		Make description brief. * Leave blank. ‡ The compass point towards which camera is pointing.	

FIG. 197.—Label of Photographic Survey Prints (Section 491).

is topographical the ordnance number precedes the subject number. A detailed example of the working of a local collection classification is given in Gower, Jast and Topley's *The Camera as Historian*.

Every mount should bear upon it a label showing particulars of the subject, number, photographer, process, date, etc. This goes well into the left-top corner. The example given is that of the Surrey Photographic Survey. A similar label with the necessary adaptations is advisable on all prints which are not the property of such surveys. In the case of surveys the label is filled in by the photographer, except the space for the class-mark, and the upper part is detached by the Survey Secretary and is pasted up in a guard-book to form his record. Only the label within the thick black lines is affixed to the mount.

492. Cataloguing.—The cataloguing of the local collection should, of course, follow the code in general use; but certain amplifications are desirable. The size, pagination, date of publication, town of publication, and the names both of printer and publisher (if they are different) should be given. Omissions from titles should be as infrequent as possible, and when made should be indicated. The object is to make this catalogue as fully bibliographical as possible.

493. The cataloguing of prints is a fairly simple matter if treated in common-sense fashion. Inquirers only occasionally require the works of artists or photographer in connexion with such prints as are stocked by libraries. A subject-index appears to be the best form, with a local index: thus

GOLF COURSE, REIGATE. 263.5

REIGATE. GOLF COURSE. 263.5

FIG. 198.—Print-index Slips (Section 493).

are a sufficient cataloguing of a particular print. All the detail beyond that can be found on the prints, which themselves are in their arrangement a classified catalogue. Of course special prints would go under the artists' names, and, or under their titles if their value warranted that course. Usually it does not.

494. Maps.—It is appropriate to deal with maps here, as the largest number of maps will probably be local ones. The

classification methods suggested for prints apply to maps as well ; that is to say, the predominating arrangement should be topographical, and the sub-arrangement subjectival, and the ultimate arrangements may be chronological. Thus a map of the geology of a particular town would arrange—

Class No. of Town. | Geology No. | Date.

495. The cataloguing of maps may follow the Anglo-American rule, which runs :

Enter maps under the cartographer. If the name of the cartographer is not found, enter under the publisher ; thus :

GREGORY, C. C. M'Millan's map of New Brunswick. Drawn by C. C. Gregory. Scale of statute miles *ca.* 8 to the inch.

JOHNSTON, W. and A. K., *pub.* Johnston's commercial and library chart of the world on Mercator's projection.

This simple rule needs some amplification for a large collection of maps ; and the following simple rules have been found to be satisfactory :

1. The *Arrangement* of entries is in chronological order, and where two entries occur under one date they are arranged alphabetically by the *heading*.
2. The *Name adopted for Heading* is that of the cartographer where found ; where the cartographer is not found, the publisher, or engraver, or title (in this order) forms the entry word.
3. The unit of *Scale* wherever possible should be the inch.
4. Give the *Size*, measured from one inner margin to another, vertical measurements first, to the nearest quarter-inch below the actual size.
5. The *Date* of arrangement is that printed on the map ; but modern maps illustrating places at a past period in history arrange under the period, the publication date being added to the entry merely as information. Undated maps from atlases or other works take the date of the work in which they appear.

All catalogues so arranged require topographical and subject indexes.

The filling of maps was dealt with in the chapter on Filing and Indexing.

496. Deeds.—Deeds are difficult to handle and store because of their shape and size, the seals attached to them, and for other reasons. For ordinary purposes flat filing in boxes similar to those used for maps will serve, but other methods are sometimes to be preferred. At Croydon all folded and small deeds are put into strong cartridge envelopes of uniform size on which a copy of the catalogue entry (as printed below) is pasted, and these envelopes are filed vertically in classified order in fireproof steel cabinets. Court rolls must be kept in proper steel deed boxes, which have locks, and be housed in a strong room. The cataloguing of deeds has been variously done, but for local purposes a topographical arrangement, with a chronological sub-arrangement, is recommended. Examples of typical entries may be given :

Bagshot.

1715 21 June (i. George I.). LEASE OF COTTAGE AND LAND. BAGSHOT. From Walter of Busbridge to Grayham of Bagshot, 99 years at 4/- per ann. (consid. £24.3.0.). dS69(333)

Cottage, barn, and 3a. land. Special condition under penalty of forfeiture of lease if broken.

“ And going with sd. John Walter his heirs and assns. to the Elecon of the sd. Co. of Surrey att any time when any Elecon for Knights of the Shire shall be held, *and vote for* such person as the said John Walter his heirs, exors., admors., and assigns shall direct. . . ”

Beddington.

1490 2 July (v. Henry VII.). BOND FOR £500 (Latin). From James and Richard Carru (old spelling of Carew) to John Iwardby and Chris. Troppenell dS655(333)

Securities : The manors of Bedyngton, Bandon and Norbury ; and other lands and tenements in Bedyngton, Croydon, Streteham, Bristowe [Burstow] and Horne ; and the manor of Maitham in Kent.

Such a catalogue must be equipped with a name index at least, and an index of places is also desirable ; these may be combined in one alphabet.

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Archives

British Records Association. Reports from Committees, 1936 :

1. Classification of English Archives.
2. Classified List of the Varieties of Documents to be found in English Archives.
3. Archives of Religious and Ecclesiastical Bodies and Organizations other than the Church of England.

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Fagg, C. C., and Hutchings, G. E. An Introduction to Regional Surveying. 1930. Camb. Univ. Press.

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For articles see Cannons : P 34, Cataloguing ; O 79, Classification, etc.

CHAPTER XXIX

LIBRARIES OF MUNICIPAL REFERENCE

499. General.—It is appropriate to devote a brief space to the consideration of reference libraries of municipal material because twenty years ago the Library Association affirmed the desirability of such libraries ; although, so far as this country is concerned, the matter is still in the prospective stage only. In various Canadian and American cities such libraries exist and have proved their utility.

Municipal history would probably furnish many examples of independent attempts to solve similar local government and administrative problems, all conducted without that reference to one another which is implied in organization, and without full profit being derived from the successes or failures of former workers. It is true that before carrying out schemes appeal is made by municipalities to their official experts ; but the experience of the latter, however wide, is usually circumscribed, and they can add to it only by personal visits to, and correspondence with, similar experts. Better knowledge would be available, and some expenditure of time and money could be avoided by any municipality which possessed an organized library of reference material.

It is, as we have shown, the business of every library to preserve in its local collection all publications of the authority to whom it belongs. The value of this limited work is obvious, but it does not necessarily demand a special department. When, however, an attempt is made to collect every kind of material, manuscript, printed, pictorial and statistical, which is likely to throw light on problems of local administration, including the municipal literature issued by other authorities, the task becomes so large that a separate and self-contained department is desirable ; although much work can be done in a section of an ordinary reference department.

500. In the office of almost every municipal department there is to be found a collection of the more obvious technical books for the reference use of its staff. Such books are treatises

on engineering details, accountancy, and the Town Clerk has usually a collection of acts, manuals, and other literature bearing upon municipal law. The collections are rarely if ever large enough to possess a representative and co-ordinate character, nor are they easily available, however complaisant their possessors may be, for the whole of the staff of the local authority or for members of the town council and the public. There is a certain wastefulness in this method of providing books. One or two of the greater towns have more general municipal collections; Glasgow is an example; and where no more is possible these at least are most desirable; but there is no town in the United Kingdom which possesses a systematically arranged and professionally administered municipal library, or bureau of municipal research, if the term is preferred. Yet many things may be urged in favour of such a department. It would be an infinite advantage to any inquirer, whether an official or a member of the public, to be able to go to a specially constituted department and to study what has been the general experience of any question or scheme under consideration or in prospect.

Within the limits presumed the field of the municipal reference is a wide one. It would collect all books of an authoritative nature on local government, and every available municipal document, from the minutes of the local council to the small paragraph from the newspaper which would shed light on municipal administration. It is definitely bibliographical work and should be placed under the control of the libraries committee; moreover, it is expert work, and can only be conducted satisfactorily by a person trained in the collection, classification, filing, and particularly the minute cataloguing and indexing of literary material; in short, to be effective, it must be placed in the care of a professional librarian.

501. Such a library would demand fairly generous accommodation if it is to contain the material indicated, and would require a proper staff; it would cost money. Here, perhaps, we have the crucial factor in the situation, because we have been unable so far to convince councils to the extent of paying for their provision that books can bear a part in the solution of municipal problems. It is special work to assist the government of a town, and if it is done should be paid for by the governing authority as a whole and quite apart from ordinary library funds. In Milwaukee, where the Public Library administers such a department, the city makes a special annual appropria-

tion from the general city fund to be added to the library's revenue, and used only for municipal reference purposes. When it is remembered that such a library, by the information it would afford, might save many thousands of pounds, the investment of a reasonable sum would seem to be an eminently satisfactory one.

502. America has anticipated us in this, as in many other library matters, and such libraries of this character as she possesses have proved to be quite successful. A large volume has been devoted by Mr. J. B. Kaiser to the discussion of the practical methods in vogue in this and collateral libraries. There, as here, stress is laid upon the economy resulting from such work. It prevents the adoption of ill-considered municipal schemes, or schemes which it shows to have been a failure elsewhere. It provides examples of the successes of other towns, and, therefore, gives the possessing town the best methods upon which to frame its own work. It is insisted, too, that this is work for the librarian, and that it is useless to spend money upon the provision of material and to place it in the charge of people who are not specially equipped by education, experience, and technical training to understand and focus the information contained in the library. What is not so vital in America, because of the *comparative* wealth of libraries there (few if any of them are over-financed), is the fact that while this may form an important branch of the public library, it must have a separate revenue.

503.

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CHAPTER XXX

THE COMMERCIAL AND TECHNICAL DEPARTMENTS

504. General.—Work which has justified itself in practice has for its aim the provision of information useful to commercial and business men. It is now well-established in all the greater towns here and has been in vogue in America for some years past, in particular in the Commercial Museum at Philadelphia, which is a separate, self-contained institution. In Great Britain commercial libraries form as part of the public library system at Birmingham, Bradford, Bristol, Glasgow, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Sheffield and elsewhere. The names of these towns indicate an important fact. Separate comprehensive commercial libraries are expensive institutions, and are only justified where a large demand for their services may be expected. Smaller libraries may indeed have commercial departments in connexion with their reference departments, but it may be wiser to limit their stock and work to the definitely local trades than to attempt a general commercial service entirely beyond their means and probable needs.

At the time we write there is a suggestion that the Post Office should establish a general telephones enquiry service, whereby any subscriber may dial "ASK" and get information. If this comes about it will require a large library of reference material and a highly-trained body of information officers—in short, reference librarians—which at present does not exist. It may be that this service can be worked in collaboration with existing public library information bureaux and commercial and technical libraries.

505. The Commercial Department.—As distinct from the general commercial library as established in the great towns we have named, the commercial section in an ordinary library is a development of the Information Desk. It specializes in the books and materials that are of use to those engaged in local industries and trade, and on these collects every form of printed and graphic material, the standard text-books and works of reference, directories, year-books, codes, reports and

periodicals. These are classified and indexed minutely, and are so disposed that ordinary questions which a business man may be expected to ask can be answered as rapidly as possible. It is what the Americans call "quick-fire reference work," in which immediacy of need and of its satisfaction are the prime factors. We do not wish to set limitations to any branch of library service, and if a librarian can, without loss or inconvenience in other directions, include further features than those described in the following sections, he should certainly consider himself at liberty to do so; but this will rarely be the case. The separate, highly-developed commercial library is distinctly a work for the some dozen British cities which are centres of great commercial and industrial populations. London lacks and is most in need of such a library, but no municipality there can be expected to provide it unaided.

506. The Commercial Library.—The need has long been felt in this country for rapid access to current and standard commercial intelligence, although it has not always been realized, and the need was accentuated by the Great War, which made Great Britain more than ever a competitor in the world-struggle. The Board of Trade established an intelligence department in London, and chambers of commerce exist in most towns which have intelligence-work as part of their reason for existence; but London is too far away for the provincial man of business who wants immediate information, and its information service is not concentrated anywhere, while the chambers of commerce do not embrace in their membership more than a part of the business community. Hence the desirability of fully-equipped, skilfully-administered libraries.

In the great towns the commercial library is housed in a commodious, appropriate department as near to the business centre of the city as possible. It is administered by the library authority, and is in the immediate charge of a librarian skilled in classification, filing and indexing, and the use of works of reference. The stock of the library has been defined by Mr. S. A. Pitt, the chief librarian of Glasgow, as standard and current; the standard consisting of treatises, encyclopædic works, code books, Government reports, Parliamentary papers, and works on commercial law and business method; the current of all kinds of fugitive papers and material of great temporary, but probably very transient, interest, such as notices, reports, pamphlets, leaflets, news-cuttings, catalogues and price-lists.



FIG. 199.—The Commercial Library, Glasgow (Sections 506-508).

To the standard would be added directories of every trade, industry and profession, and of every country, county and important town; atlases, maps, charts and similar material would form an important part of the collection; and, perhaps most important of all, every financial journal, trade periodical, etc., in English, with a liberal supply of those in other languages. The consular reports, and other Government publications, including those of the Patent Office and other technical departments of the Crown, should be included. Some of these can be obtained as a free grant; many of them, strange to say, can only be obtained by purchase.

507. The methodology of such a library resembles that of the ordinary reference library, with special emphasis on minute filing and indexing. As much of the current information as possible should be on cards or in vertical files in the most concise form; the business man has no time to read lengthy material, nor can he afford to wait for it as a rule while the commercial librarian slowly produces it. There are times when a question demands a reference to London or to some other place, which involves delay; but in the ordinary course, a quotation, address, the character of a firm, a route, code, or some such information, is wanted, and it should be forthcoming on the instant. The card index and vertical file, and experience in the needs of readers, should eventually lead to effective service. Much of the work is done by telephone, and a complete telephone equipment is an essential of the library. The whole resources of the general library system of the town are also at the disposal of the user of the commercial library. The library also keeps records of the specialities of the various manufacturers, traders, etc., of the town, of changes in their scope, management, and so forth; and an index of translators, typing firms, and others required at times by business people. It must revise its material regularly and systematically so that it may always be the latest.

508. To secure the best results co-operation with exchanges and chambers of commerce is desirable; and in many places this seems to have been forthcoming. At Glasgow, Bailie A. Campbell states that the commercial library has a limited province; it is "to meet the wants of the smaller commercial man, the tradesman, the man who pushes his way, the men who have risen from nothing"; the others, presumably, are provided for by the exchange and the chamber of commerce. At Manchester, however, the commercial library is actually in

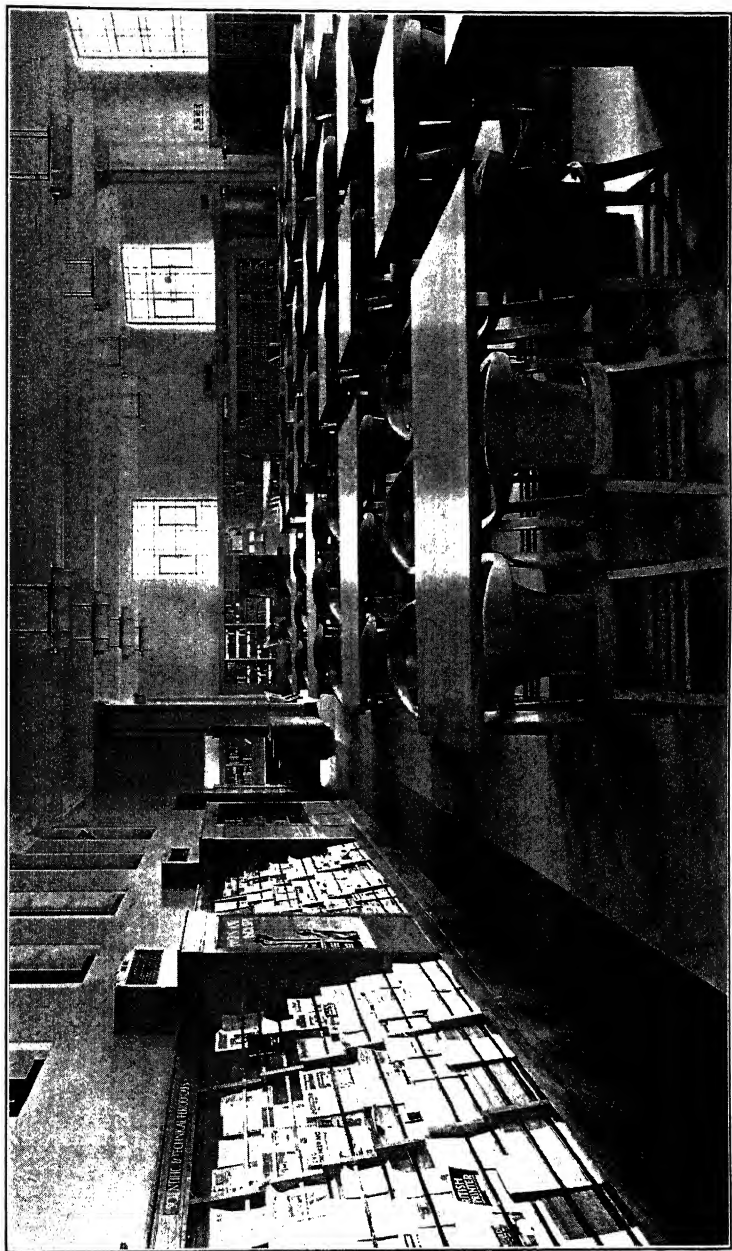


FIG. 200.—The Science and Technology Library, Sheffield Central Library (Section 509).

the Royal Exchange, and elsewhere no such limit is recognized, the libraries have made their present progress through the co-operation of the representative organizations of commercial men. Unless this is forthcoming there seems not very much chance of success. It may be that the commercial library, as initiated by librarians, will in course of time become the nucleus of a commercial institution or bureau in which the branches of the Board of Trade, the Chamber of Commerce, and the various Consuls may be housed, controlled in its operations by an expert paid a very high salary, who shall be for the district a sort of Minister of Commerce capable of guiding the commercial people. But that is in the region of speculation.

509. Technical Libraries.—While the commercial library furnishes information for the buyer and seller of commodities, the technical library is concerned with information for the manufacturer and operative; the question is therefore closely related to the question of commercial libraries, and in some districts is the more important. In large American libraries there is usually a separate department of the reference library devoted to technology, but in this country the supply of such books as this department would afford has been inadequate. Lately considerable attention has been devoted to technical libraries, and we may summarize a few of the results and recommendations.

510. Local Industries.—It is clear that municipal libraries have a special interest in providing all literature possible on local industries; text-books of the various trades, periodicals, patent publications, reports, catalogues and similar matter should be collected assiduously. This does not mean that every trade represented in the town need be treated in an exhaustive manner, but the leading industries, by which numbers of the townsfolk live, certainly should be. Examples of such collections are those on engineering at Coventry, furniture at Shoreditch, clocks and clock-making at Finsbury, coal-mining at Wigan, and the leather trades at Northampton. Some of these, however, are confined to books, in many cases perforce for lack of funds and personal service; but the ideal, too often unrealized, is a collection of material of all kinds of which books form only a part. Local means and opportunities must determine how far any library can carry such a collection; but as many works as may be obtained of recognized value on the predominant industries should certainly be stocked.

511. *Technical Collections Generally.*—Hitherto it has been the province of the municipal library to supply general works in technology, and the special libraries of individual industries have been provided by the industry. This, in the view of the Ministry of Reconstruction's Adult Education Committee (Third Interim Report, *Libraries and Museums*, 1919, Cd. 9237), should be the prevailing method. It is obvious that few except the largest public libraries can supply expensive treatises on technical questions in which their own districts are not directly interested; even with greatly increased funds they could not do so in any large measure. Too limited a view, however, should not be taken in great towns, because co-ordination and co-operation, such as are implied in the Joint-Technical Catalogues published at Glasgow, may bring the whole resources of a wide area to a focus. In ordinary towns the present aim should be to obtain the largest possible number of general and special works in science and applied science, and to leave the supply of the more expensive, recondite, and valuable but rarely used treatises to a central reservoir library, which may be developed out of the National Central Library, with the aid of outliers in the shape of the special libraries of the various institutions which represent trades and professions. The central reservoir library in London, from which all libraries may draw important little-used books, is the basis of this as of all library service.

In building up technical collections a library benefits greatly by expert assistance; but the advice of several experts, and not of one only, is desirable, since experts rarely agree on minute questions of books, and each of any two experts cancels the idiosyncrasies of the other. But experts can usually be found from neighbouring universities, technical colleges, or big industrial concerns, who will give the library the benefit of their knowledge, especially in assessing the value of older books. No section of the library needs revision so frequently as the technical, unless it be the commercial.

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See also Library Literature, under Business (and its sub-divisions), pp. 63-65, and Technical Libraries, p. 362.

CHAPTER XXXI

READING ROOM METHODS

514. General.—Every library possesses some sort of reading room service, even when as in the one-room libraries of small areas a few racks and tables only can be devoted to it. In various towns the needs of this work will be felt in various ways and in some hardly at all, but an admirable case can be made for the provision of adequate supplies of the best literary, scientific and technical periodicals in all subjects and this is rarely challenged. The difficulty arises when the provision of current newspapers is considered. This question would scarcely have required thought formerly, because it was customary to devote a large room, sometimes the largest, to newspapers. This is still done in some towns. The provision on this scale is a survival of the time when the library was a competitor with the public house and when presumably the newspaper was beyond the means of poorer readers. To-day the newsroom is seen in its right perspective as the least productive part of the service; a few town libraries have actually opened without newspapers—although some that did so have since succumbed to them—and this is a general policy for the little town libraries in county library systems. In most towns, however, the newsroom is strongly entrenched, and the arguments in its favour must be given due weight. It satisfies the literary demands of a certain type of citizen who asks no more of the library; but the conclusive argument, if any value in newspapers is allowed, is that in the properly managed newsroom every shade of opinion is represented, and there, and there only, can the average man do that comparative reading which is rarely done but is so necessary in the shaping of a balanced opinion on affairs. It will be seen that this turns upon an if, and there are those who believe that the cost is not justified by the results; but, in analysis, the actual monetary cost of newsheets is not a large percentage of a library's income.¹

¹ No complete analysis of the spending upon newspapers, as apart from weekly illustrated and other reviews, magazines, critical journals, etc., which are not really newsroom material, appears to be available. In the library system to which the Editor is attached the annual cost for five newsrooms is £150, or 21% of the expenditure upon periodicals, 2·25% of the book fund and 0·63% of the library's income.

Periodicals are another matter. Lighting, heating, cleaning and supervision certainly are substantial items, but even including these the newsroom is not expensive if there is any real justification for it at all. For most librarians they are a hard fact which has been inherited, and where a community has provided them it is perhaps well to remember the adage that it is one thing to withhold the bone from the dog and quite another to take it away. Good management with its attendant disciplinary requirements will remedy most of the evils alleged against the room.

515. The Newsroom.—It is not always possible to give a separate room to newspapers; indeed in small libraries it might be uneconomical to do so. In larger libraries it is the best and proper method, because the turning over of newspapers cannot always be quiet, and readers engaged in more serious reading are disturbed by it; moreover there is some advantage in segregating newspaper readers as a class. Local conditions may prescribe special action, as, for example, whether this room should have seats in it or whether readers should stand to read the newspapers, whether betting news should be blacked out, and whether the advertisements should be extracted from the papers and posted up outside the building—or not in each case. As for the room itself: its size depends upon local needs, but the old notion that it should be as large as the lending library is obsolete, it should generally be much smaller; there should be adequate heating and its ventilation should receive careful attention; indeed, the room should be well-decorated, have good natural and artificial light, and if pictures and plants can be introduced they serve to improve its tone.

516. Selection.—The librarian must follow the Pauline example of being all things to all men, and endeavour to persuade his committee to the same mind. In no part of the library is the absolute impartiality that this implies more necessary. There are those who advocate the exclusion of all propaganda newspapers, but there are few newspapers that have no political complexion; in fact, every newspaper is in some way a vehicle for theories which somebody wants to disseminate. There are, however, quite obviously numbers of journals which are blatantly of one opinion, and these may fairly be excluded; but the political views of the committee, if it have any, should not be expressed in the selection of papers. That library is best served which admits alongside *The Times* and *The Observer*

such papers as *The Blackshirt*, *The Daily Worker* and *Social Credit*; the placing of opposed papers side by side is the best corrective of the extreme views of any of them. The local

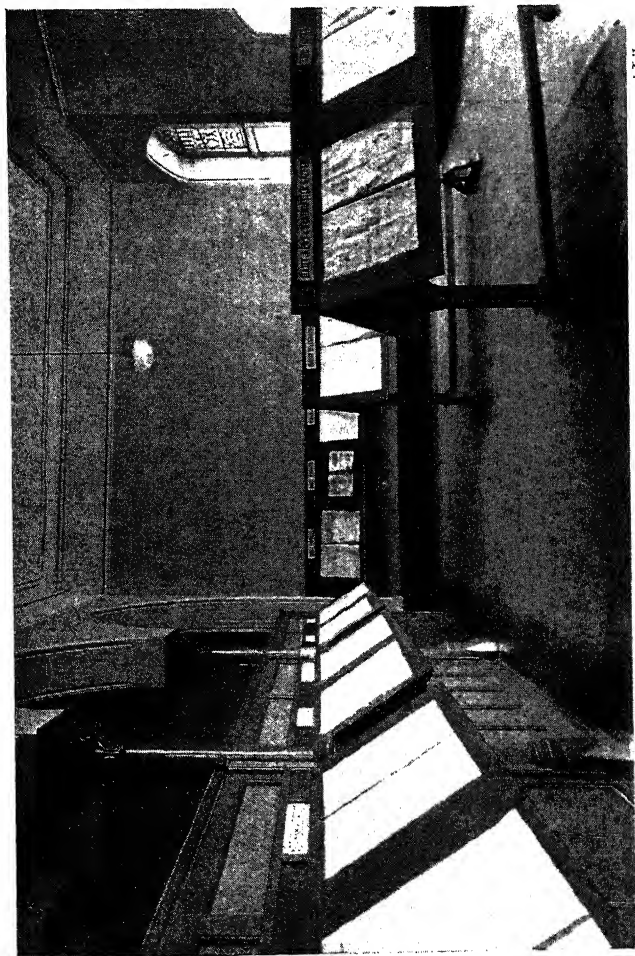


Fig. 201.—Newsroom with Wall and Double (Standard) Slopes (Sections 518-520). [Libraco.]

newspapers and the London dailies are obviously to be included, and as far as funds permit the principal papers of the greater provincial centres, and such foreign newspapers as people demand or may be persuaded to read; French and German are obviously desirable.

517. Blacking Out.—A few libraries still follow the formerly frequent practice of blacking out the betting news. The grounds for this are the alleged frequenting of the room by men anxious for tips and results, and the assumption that betters are an undesirable element in the newsroom community. It is suggested by opponents that it is unwarrantable interference with the liberty of the subject, that it gives the room a most unprepossessing appearance if series of black columns are presented by the papers; and that, if the evil exists it can be met to a great extent by the purchase only of editions too late to be of use to the sportsman. On the other hand, the testimony of some librarians cannot be disregarded, that since they have blacked-out betting news the rooms have ceased to be haunted by objectionable people.

It is usual to perform the operation by running a rubber roller of column-width covered with printers' ink down the offending columns, and hideous but harmless rivers of blackness take the place of the betting news. Another method, taking a little more time but more sightly, is to paste strips of opaque white paper over the columns. It has been suggested that these strips may bear lists of books and other library news, but it must be realized that the blank columns themselves are irritating enough to the public and that such well-meant "improvements of the occasion" are ill-advised.

Further suggestions that have been made in order to limit cost and obstruction are (1) that only morning daily papers be provided; (2) that the "Situations Vacant" columns only be displayed from 7 or 8 to 11 a.m.; (3) that the whole of them be removed at 11 a.m. and their places occupied by maps, charts, pictures of current interest or similar broadside matter. These are mere substitutes for the real thing, which is a well-kept newsroom, adequately staffed by janitors or other attendants. In this point lies a real problem; if the room is to be really effective it must be supervised, and it would be well if that could be done by a library worker with adequate knowledge of the newspapers, their points of view and special features, who was able to link up the current issues with file copies, direct readers who were moved to further enquiry by their newspaper reading, and, in short, make the room a living source of information. This indeed might add to the cost but it would justify that cost.

518. Display Stands.—The design of the newsroom deserves a certain amount of attention. Where it can be done, each

newspaper should be fixed in a definite position on a stand so designed that every part of the paper can be read easily by men and women of average size and sight. It is usual for these stands to be fixed in the form of slopes round the walls, and this implies, if much space is not to be lost, that the window lighting the room must be above the stands or that the room be top-lighted. Artificial lighting must be both general

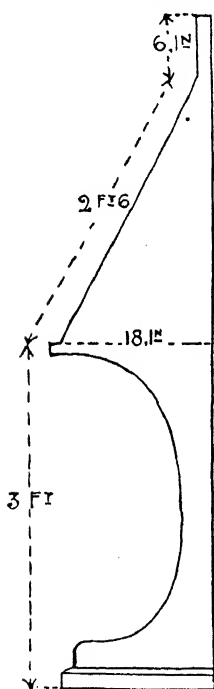


FIG. 202.
Wall Newspaper Stand
(Section 519).

and local so that there are no shadows thrown by the readers on what they read. In addition to wall slopes, standard slopes with two sides for display, are generally used, where the space is limited. It is difficult with this form to obtain other than an obstructed and crowded effect; a newsroom gains much in appearance, spaciousness and airiness when the newspapers are relegated to the walls. The weekly journals can be kept very conveniently on tables, as shown in Sections 216-20; but it is undoubtedly better to have only stands in a newsroom; magazines and particular technical and more severe periodicals are better kept in a separate periodicals room.

519. The present conditions of printing and production seem to make the broad-side style of newspaper a necessity in all countries, and till some radical change in machinery is introduced which will permit newspapers in pamphlet or small quarto form to be produced rapidly, large stands for the display of newspapers will have to be provided. Standard newspaper slopes either at

right angles to walls or distributed over the floor of a newsroom are not recommended, for the reasons already given and because their cost is much greater. They are necessary, however, in some cases, owing to considerations of light and convenience, and the form and dimensions indicated will be found useful (Fig. 202) if four feet of lateral space may be allowed on the slope for each newspaper.

520. Apart from the fact that an exclusive use of wall slopes leaves the centre of the room free, it permits the titles and

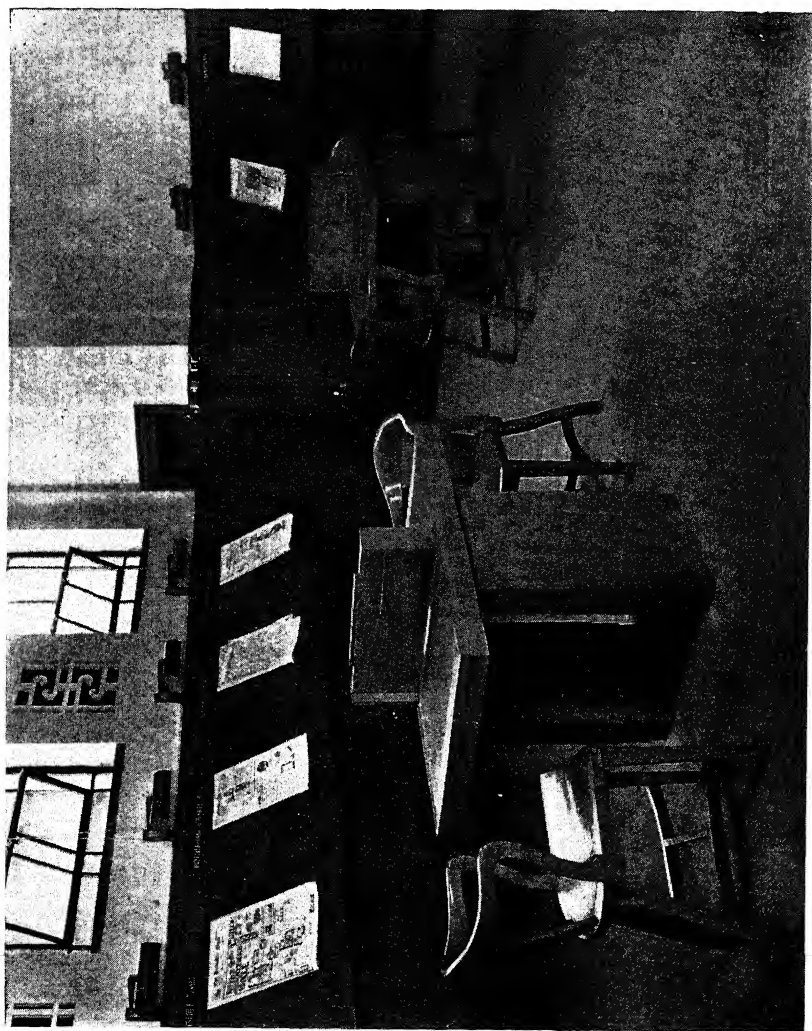


FIG. 203.—Newsroom with Writing Tables, Sheffield Central Library (Section 520).



FIG. 204.—Newsroom with 'Adjustable Slopes'—Norbury Branch Library, Croydon (Section 521).

whereabouts of newspapers to be noticed more easily. Wall slopes should be made to the same dimensions as standards, save, of course, that only one face is necessary. The lower part of the slope should project eighteen inches to fifteen inches from the wall, to give a convenient angle for reading. Too great a slope is not desirable, as it tends to throw the top of the paper out of the reach and eye range of short people. A news-room of beautiful design, admirably wall-sloped, with generous writing tables for note-making, and incidentally a well designed hat and umbrella rack is shown in Fig. 200.

521. Stands, it will be noted, are of such height that readers must stand to read them. This makes the newsroom most uncomfortable for elderly and feeble readers, and while such standing may be desirable in some places as encouraging the reader to get his reading over as quickly as may be, it is a poor

**Readers are requested to relinquish
newspapers within TEN MINUTES of
being asked to do so by other readers**

FIG. 205.—Reading Room Notice (Section 522).

solution of an admitted difficulty. It has been met in a few places by the system designed, we believe, by Mr. E. A. Savage for use at Wallasey. Here the slopes work on a central pivot and move backwards and forwards to enable the top or bottom of the paper to be read with ease, and are so balanced that they fall easily and readily into their correct position when released. These slopes, it may be added, are much lower than those usually adopted, and a reader may be seated at them and may compass the whole paper thus. Fig. 204 shows a small news-room in a purely middle-class residential area where a slope somewhat of this character is used.

522. **Newspaper Fittings.**—TITLES for newspapers should be fixed on the stands over the centre of the spaces occupied by the papers. A title board about six inches high should be provided for the purpose. It can be made to slide along a projection on the top of the stands if grooved on its under side. On this the name-tablets of the newspapers should appear in bold letters, not less than two inches high. These tablets may be printed on paper or card, or may appear on enamelled, metal or plate-glass tablets. There is a very large variety of such name-tablets on the market, and choice will not be difficult.

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